

(HISTORY OF DHARMAŚĀSTRA)

(ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL
RELIGIOUS AND CIVIL LAW)



BY

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PREFACE

It is a little over ten years since the first volume of my History of Dharmaśāstra was published. In the preface to that volume I expressed the hope that time and health permitting I might issue in a few years the second volume dealing with the development of the various subjects comprised in Dharmaśāstra. For several years thereafter whatever leisure I could secure from professional work was devoted to the collection and orderly assortment of the vast Literature on Dharmaśāstra. After my return from a few months' visit to Europe in 1937 I commenced the work of writing the second volume. It soon became apparent to me that to compress within the limits of a single volume the development of the thousand and one topics that fall within the purview of Dharmaśāstra would present only a scrappy and faint outline of the whole field. To add to the difficulties of my task my old painful complaint (duodenal ulcer) recurred with far greater virulence than before, so much so that, partly on medical advice and partly out of despair, in October 1938 I gave up the work altogether. When relief did not come even after six months' total abstinence from literary labours I resumed, in spite of my extremely painful complaint, the work of writing, for fear that otherwise the extensive materials that I had been collecting for nearly two decades might be entirely lost to the world of Sanskrit scholars and that my labours might be altogether wasted. Being afraid that my strength and resolution may not last till the completion of the rather ambitious undertaking, I decided upon bringing out in two volumes the development of the various subjects comprised in Dharmaśāstra. The present volume contains the treatment of varṇa and āśrama, the saṃskāras, āhnikā and ācāra, dāna, pratiṣṭhā and utsarga, and śrauta (vedic) sacrifices. The next volume (the last) will deal with the following topics: vyavahāra (Law and procedure), āsauca (impurity on birth and death), śrāddha, prāyaścitta, tīrtha, vrata, kāla, śānti, the influence of the Pūrva-mīmāṃsā and other śāstras on Dharmaśāstra, customs and usages modifying Dharmaśāstra, the philosophical background of Dharmaśāstra, and future developments in Dharmaśāstra. Looking to my past performance I am unwilling to make any promise about the time when the next volume may be

expected to be published. I may state, however, that in view of the fact that at present I am in much better health than I have been for several years I shall try to publish it in three years more.

Excellent works dealing with distinct topics of Dharmaśāstra have been given to the world by eminent scholars. But so far as I know no writer has yet attempted single-handed to survey the whole field of Dharmaśāstra. From that point of view this volume partakes of the nature of a pioneer undertaking. It is therefore to be expected that such an ambitious project will manifest the defects of all pioneer work. The circumstances (adverted to above) in which this work had to be written and the great hurry with which it had to be rushed through are other factors that are responsible for the awkward or obscure expressions and the errors that it may contain. I mention these matters for lessening the surprise that such blemishes might lead my friends to feel and not for blunting the edge of adverse criticism. The critic is certainly entitled to mercilessly criticize the work for its shortcomings and mistakes. Some readers may complain that the present work is prolix, while others may say that the space devoted to several topics is meagre. I have tried to pursue a middle course.

There was great temptation throughout this work to compare ancient and medieval Indian customs, usages and beliefs as disclosed by dharmaśāstra works with those of other peoples and countries. But I have tried to omit, as far as possible, such comparisons. Whenever I indulge in them I do so for several reasons. It is the fashion among many writers, both European and Indian, to hold the caste system and the dharmaśāstra view of life responsible for most of the evils from which India suffers at present. To a very large extent I do not subscribe to that view. I have endeavoured to show that human nature being the same in essentials throughout the world, the same tendencies and evils manifest themselves in all countries, the same abuses prevail and the same perversions of originally beneficent institutions take place everywhere and anywhere, whether particular countries or societies are within the grip of the caste system or any other casteless system. Undoubtedly the caste system has in fact produced certain evils, but it is not singular in this respect. No system is perfect and immune from evil effects. Though I have been brought up in the midst of the Brahmanical system, I hope it will be conceded by scholars

that I have shown both sides of the picture and that I have endeavoured to write with detachment.

A few words must be said about the extensive quotations from Sanskrit works and the references to modern Indian Legislation and case-law. For those who cannot read English (most *pandits* and *sūstris* do not) the quotations will be of great help in understanding at least the trend of the arguments. Besides Indian scholars are as a class poor and cannot afford to purchase numerous books. Nor are there many good libraries in India where all works of reference can be had. For all these reasons thousands of quotations have been cited in the footnotes. The quotations are mostly drawn from published works and references to mss. are few and far between. I hope that the numerous quotations will not intrude themselves on the attention of those who want to read only the English portion of the work. Legislative enactments and case-law have been referred to for showing that many regulations of *dharmaśāstra* are still very much alive, that they govern the every-day life of Hindus and permeate all classes of Hindu society in spite of the fact that a considerable part of *dharmaśāstra* has become obsolete. Similar remarks apply to the numerous references to inscriptions on stone and copper. These latter serve to prove that rules laid down in the *dharmaśāstra* were throughout two thousand years observed by the people and enforced by kings and that such rules were not mere precepts composed by dreamers or scholastic pedants.

I acknowledge with great pleasure that I am under deep obligations to many predecessors and workers in the same and other fields and to many friends. Among the works to which I had to refer constantly and from which I derived the greatest benefit I must specially refer to the following: Bloomfield's Vedic Concordance, the Vedic Index of Professors Macdonell and Keith, the Sacred Books of the East edited by Max Müller (vol. II, VII, XII, XIV, XXV, XXVI, XXIX, XXX, XXXIII, XLI, XLIII, XLIV). As I was handicapped by the fact that I know little German and less French, I could not fully utilise all the work done by modern European scholars. I am highly obliged to Paramahansa Kevalānanda Svāmī of Wai for constant help and guidance (particularly in the *śrauta* portion); to Chintāman-śāstri Datar of Poona for assistance in the chapter on *darsa-pūrṇamāsa* and for carefully going through the other chapters on *śrauta*; to Mr. Keshav Lakshman Ogale for his work on a

portion of the Index ; to Tarkatīrtha Raghunāthaśāstri Kokje for reading through the whole work and suggesting additions and emendations.

Besides, assistance in various ways during the progress of the work for over three years was very kindly rendered by a host of friends, among whom I should like to make special mention of Prof. H. D. Velankar, Prof. Rangaswami Ayyangar, Prof. P. P. S. Śāstri, Dr. Alsdorf, Mr. Bhabatosh Bhattacharya, Mr. N. G. Chapekar, Mr. G. H. Khare, Mr. N. C. Bapat, Pandit Rangacharya Raddi, Mr. L. S. Dravid (a Sāmavedi of Poona), Pandit S. D. Satavlekar, Mr. P. K. Gode. Thanks are due to all these and other friends for their help and interest in this volume. I must state, however, that I alone am responsible for the views and mistakes contained in this work.

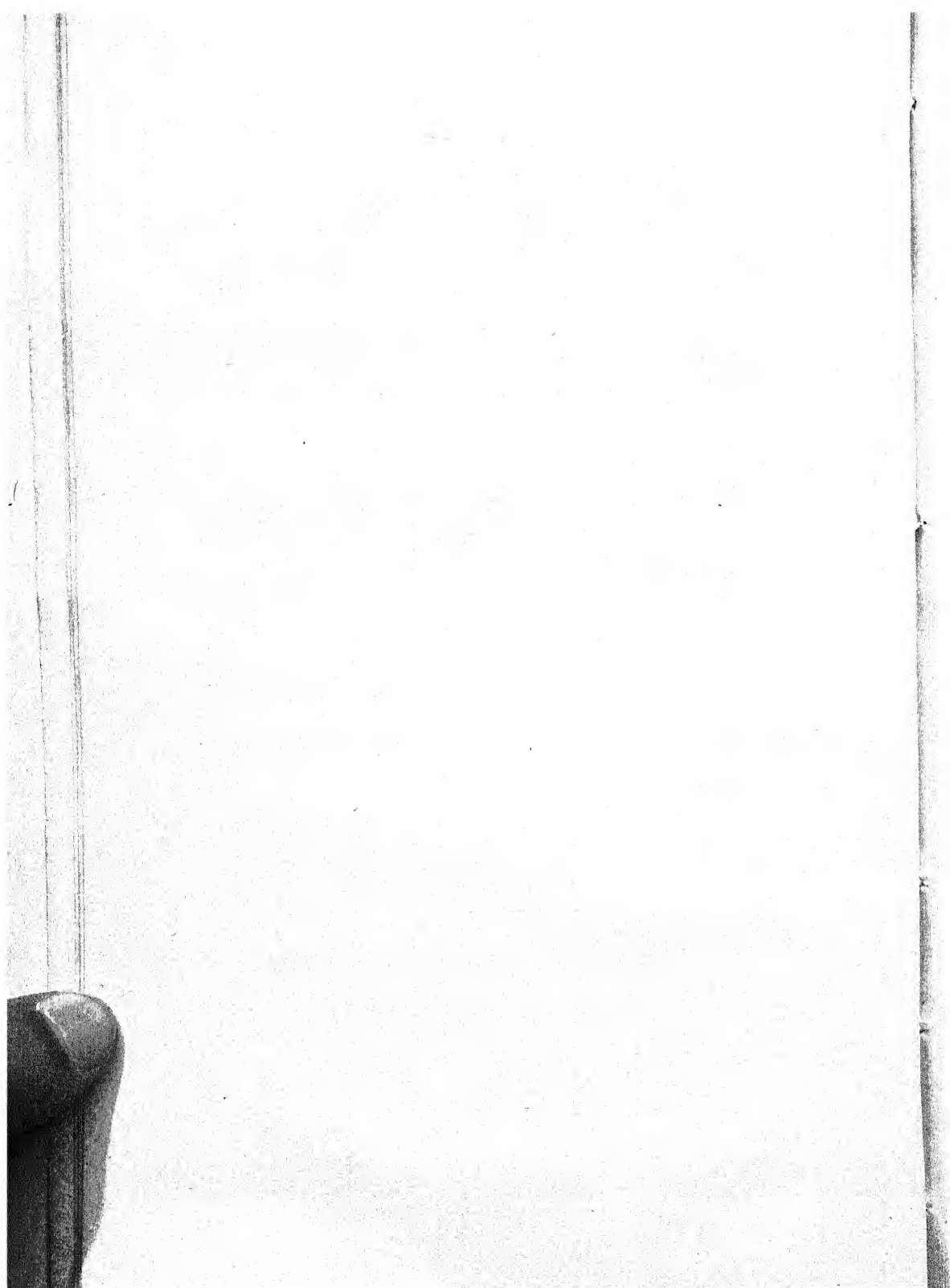
In a work containing thousands of quotations and references it is very likely that many slips have occurred. Besides it is very much to be regretted that several misprints have crept into the footnotes by the loss or displacement of dots and other loose parts of Sanskrit letters in the process of printing.

15th June 1941

P. V. KANE

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- A. I. R. = All India Reporter (edited by Mr. V. V. Chitale of Nagpur).
- Ait. Br. = Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.
- All. = Indian Law Reports, Allahabad Series.
- Ānan. or Ānand. = Ānandāśrama Press edition, Poona.
- Āp. Dh. S. = Āpastamba-dharmasūtra.
- Āp. gr. = Āpastamba-gr̥hya-sūtra.
- Āp. M. P. = Āpastamba-mantra-pāṭha.
- Āp. Śr. = Āpastamba-śrauta-sūtra.
- Āśv. gr. = Āśvalāyana-gr̥hya-sūtra.
- Āśv. Śr. = Āśvalāyana-śrauta-sūtra.
- A. S. W. I. = Archaeological Survey of Western India Reports.
- Baud. Dh. S. = Baudhāyana-dharma-sūtra.
- Baud. gr. = Baudhāyana-gr̥hya-sūtra.
- Baud. śr. = Baudhāyana-śrautasūtra.
- Bhār. gr. = Bhāradvāja-gr̥hya-sūtra.
- B. I. = Bibliotheca Indica series, Calcutta.
- Bom. = Indian Law Reports, Bombay Series.
- Bom. H. C. R. = Bombay High Court Reports (vol. I-XII).
- Bom. L. R. = Bombay Law Reporter (edited by Ratanlal and Dhirajlal).
- B. O. R. I. = Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona.
- Br. Up. = Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad.
- Cal. = Indian Law Reports, Calcutta Series.
- Chān. Up. or Ch. Up. = Chāndogya Upaniṣad.
- C. I. I. = (Volumes of) Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum.
- C. L. J. = Calcutta Law Journal.
- Com. = Commentator or Commentary (according to context).
- Cr. ed. = Critical Edition of the Mahābhārata, published by the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona.
- C. W. N. = Calcutta Weekly Notes (Law Reports).
- D. C. = Deccan College Collection of Sanskrit Mss.
- Dh. S. = Dharmasūtra.
- Die Frau = Die Frau im Brahmanismus by Dr. M. Winternitz (1920, Leipzig).

- E. C. = Epigraphia Carnatica.
 E. I. = Epigraphia Indica.
 E. R. E. = Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics (edited by James Hastings).
 F. n. = Footnote.
 Fick = The Social organization in North-east India in Buddha's time (translated from German by Dr. Shishirkumara Maitra, 1920).
 Gaut. = Dharmasūtra of Gautama.
 Gr. R. = Gr̥hastharatnākara of Candēśvara.
 G. S. = Gupta *śāhvat*.
 H. A. S. L. = History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature by Prof. Max Müller (1859).
 Hir. gr. = Hiranyakeśi-gr̥hya-sūtra.
 I. A. = Indian Antiquary.
 I. H. Q. = Indian Historical Quarterly.
 I. L. R. = India Law Reports series.
 Ins. = Inscription or inscriptions.
 J. B. B. R. A. S. = Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
 J. B. O. R. S. = Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society.
 Jiv. = Pandit Jivānanda's edition.
 J. R. A. S. = Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, London.
 Kāthaka S. = Kāthaka Saṃhitā.
 Kauṭ. = Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra.
 L. R. I. A. = Law Reports, Indian Appeals (decided by the Privy Council), the number of the volume being inserted between L. R. and I. A.
 Mait. S. = Maitrāyaṇi-saṃhitā.
 Mānava gr. = Mānava-gr̥hyasūtra.
 Mār. or Mārkaṇḍeya = Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa.
 Mit. = The commentary Mitākṣarā on Yājñavalkya Smṛti.
 Moo. I. A. = Moore's Indian Appeals.
 n. = footnote.
 Pān. = Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī.
 P and M = Pollock and Maitland's History of English Law.
 Pār. gr. = Pāraskara-gr̥hya-sūtra.
 Par. M. = Parāśara-Mādhaviya.
 Pat. = Patañjali's Māhābhāṣya.

Q. = Quoted.

Rel. and Phil. = Prof. Keith's 'Religion and Philosophy of the Veda and Upaniṣads.'

Rg. = Rgveda.

Rit. Lit. = Hillebrandt's 'Ritual Litteratur Vedische Opfer und Zauber'.

Sam. K. = Saṃskāra-kaustubha of Anantadeva.

Sam. P. or Pr. = Saṃskāraprakāśa of Mitramiśra.

Sam. R. M. } = Saṃskāra-ratna-mālā of Gopinātha.
or S. R. M. }

Śān. gr. = Śāṅkhyāyana-gr̥hya-sūtra.

Śat. Br. = Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

S. B. E. = Sacred Books of the East (ed. by Prof. Max Müller).

Sch. C. O. = Scheduled castes Order of 1936.

Sm. C. = Smṛti-candrikā.

Sm. M. or Smr. M. = Smṛtimuktāphala of Vaidyanātha.

Śr. P. N. = Śrautapadārthanirvacana.

S. V. = Sāmaveda.

Tai. Ār. = Taittirīya Āraṇyaka.

Tai. Br. = Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.

Tai. S. or Sam. = Taittirīya Samhitā.

Tr. = Translation or translated (according to context).

Up. = Upaniṣad.

Vāj. S. = Vājasaneyya Samhitā.

Vaik. or Vaikhāṇasa = Vaikhāṇasa-smārta-sūtra.

Vas. or Vas. Dh. S. = Vasiṣṭha-dharmasūtra.

Viṣṇu. Dh. S. = Viṣṇu-dharma-sūtra.

V. S. = Vedānta-sūtra.

Yāj. = Yājñavalkyasmṛti.

Yati. Dh. S. or } = Yatidharma-saṃgraha.
Yati-dh. }

Z. D. M. G. = Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

आप. गृ. सू. = आपस्तम्बगृह्यसूत्र

आप. घ. सू. or आप. घ. = आपस्तम्बधर्मसूत्र

आप. म. पाठ = आपस्तम्बयामन्त्रपाठ

आप. श्रौ. सू. = आपस्तम्बश्रौतसूत्र

आश्व. गृ. सू. = आश्वलायनगृह्यसूत्र

आश्व. श्रौ. = आश्वलायनश्रौतसूत्र

H. D. B

क. = कण्वदेवसंहिता

ऐ. आ. = ऐतरेयारण्यक

ऐ. ब्रा. = ऐतरेयब्राह्मण

कठोप. = कठोपनिषद्

कात्या. = कात्यायन

कात्या. श्रौ. = कात्यायनश्रौतसूत्र

कौषीतिकि ब्रा.उ. = कौषीतिकिब्राह्मणोपनिषद्
 गृ. र. or गृह. र. = गृहस्थरत्नाकर
 गौ. or गौ. ध. सू. = गौतमधर्मसूत्र
 छा. उ. = छान्दोग्योपनिषद्
 जै. = पूर्वमीमांसासूत्र
 जै. उ. ब्रा. = जैमिनीयोपनिषद्ब्राह्मण
 तै. आ. = तैत्तिरीयारण्यक
 तै. उ. = तैत्तिरीयोपनिषद्
 तै. ब्रा. = तैत्तिरीयब्राह्मण
 तै. सं. = तैत्तिरीयसंहिता
 परा. मा. = पराशरमाधवीय
 पा. = पाणिनीयाष्टाध्यायी
 पूर्वमी. = पूर्वमीमांसासूत्र
 बृह. = बृहस्पतिस्मृति (as quoted in
 digests)
 बृह. उ. = बृहदारण्यकोपनिषद्
 बौ. गृ. = बौधायनगृह्यसूत्र
 बौ. ध. or बौ. ध. सू. = बौधायनधर्मसूत्र
 ब्रा. = ब्राह्मण
 मनु = मनुस्मृति
 मिता. = मिताक्षरा (याज्ञवल्क्यस्मृतिटीका)

मेधा. = मेधातिथि (मनुस्मृतिभाष्यकार)
 मै. सं. or मैत्रा. सं. = मैत्रायणीसंहिता
 मैत्री. उप. = मैत्र्युपनिषद्
 यति. ध. सं. = यातिधर्मसंग्रह
 या. or याज्ञ. = याज्ञवल्क्यस्मृति
 वाज. सं. = वाजसनेयसंहिता
 वि. वि. = विवादचिन्तामणि
 विश्वरूप = याज्ञवल्क्यस्मृतिटीका of विश्वरूप
 वि. र. = विवादरत्नाकर
 वै. स्मा. or वैखा. स्मा. = वैखानसस्मार्तरूत्र
 व्य. म. or व्यव. म. = व्यवहारमयूख
 शतपथब्रा. = शतपथब्राह्मण
 शां. गृ. = शांख्यायनगृह्य
 शां. श्रौ. = शांख्यायनश्रौत
 श्रद्धव. म. = श्रद्धकमलाकर
 सं. कौ. = संस्कारकौस्तुभ
 सं. प्र. = संस्कारप्रकाश
 सं. र. मा. = संस्काररत्नमाला
 स्मृतिच. = स्मृतिचन्द्रिका
 स्मृ. मु. or स्मृतिमु. = स्मृतिमुक्ताफल

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

(of important works and authors referred to in this volume)

N. B.—Some dates, particularly of ancient works, are conjectural and only tentative.

4000 B. C.—1000 B. C.—The period of the Vedic Saṁhitās, Brāhmaṇas and Upaniṣads. It is possible that some hymns may go back to a period even earlier than 4000 B. C. and that some Upaniṣads (even out of those that are regarded as the principal and the earliest ones) are later than 1000 B. C.

800 B. C.—500 B. C.—The Nirukta.

800 B. C.—400 B. C.—The principal śrauta sūtras (of Āpastamba, Āśvalāyana, Baudhāyana, Kātyāyana, Śāṅkhyāyana, Lāṭyāyana, Drāhyāyana, Satyāśādhā) and some of the grhya sūtras (Āśvalāyana, Āpastamba &c.).

600 B. C.—300 B. C.—The dharmasūtras of Āpastamba, Gautama, Baudhāyana, Vasistha and the Grhya-sūtras of Pāraskara, Baudhāyana and some others.

600 B. C.—300 B. C.—Pāṇini.

500 B. C.—200 B. C.—Jaimini's Pūrvamīmāṃsā-sūtra.

300 B. C.—100 A. D.—Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra

150 B. C. —Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali.

200 B. C.—200 A. D.—Manusmṛti.

100 A. D.—300 A. D.—Yājñavalkya-smṛti.

50 A. D.—300 A. D.—Viṣṇudharmasūtra.

100 A. D.—400 A. D.—Nārada-smṛti.

200 A. D.—500 A. D.—Vaikhāṇasa-smṛtasūtra.

200 A. D.—500 A. D.—Śabara, com. of Jaimini.

300 A. D.—500 A. D.—Bṛhaspatismṛti (not yet found).

300 A. D.—600 A. D.—Some of the extant purāṇas viz. Vāyu, Viṣṇu, Mārkaṇḍeya, Kūrma, Matsya.

400 A. D.—600 A. D.—Kātyāyanasmṛti (not yet found).

505 A. D.—587 A. D.—Varāha-mihira, author of Brhatsaṁhitā.

650 A. D.—750 A. D.—Tantravārtika of Kumāṛila.

788 A. D.—820 A. D.—Śaṅkarācārya, the great Advaita philosopher.

- 600 A. D.—900 A. D.—Most of the other smṛtis and some of the purāṇas.
- 800 A. D.—850 A. D.—Viśvarūpa, com. of Yājñavalkya.
- 900 A. D. —Medhātithi, com. of Manu
- 1100 A. D. —Mitākṣarā of Vijñāneśvara.
- 1100 A. D.—1150 A. D.—Kalpataru of Lakṣmīdhara.
- 1100 A. D.—1150 A. D.—Jimūtavāhana.
- 1125 A. D. —Aparārka.
- 1150 A. D.—1200 A. D.—Smṛtyarthasāra.
- 1200 A. D.—1225 A. D.—Smṛticandrikā.
- 1150 A. D.—1300 A. D.—Haradatta.
- 1150 A. D.—1300 A. D.—Kullūka.
- 1260 A. D.—1270 A. D.—Hemādri's Caturvargacintāmaṇi.
- 1310 A. D.—1360 A. D.—Candēśvara, author of the Gṛhastharatnākara and other Ratnākara.
- 1300 A. D.—1380 A. D.—Mādhavācārya, author of Parāśara-Mādhaviya.
- 1360 A. D.—1390 A. D.—Madanapārijāta.
- 1425 A. D.—1450 A. D.—Madanaratna.
- 1520 A. D.—1570 A. D.—Raghunandana.
- 1610 A. D.—1640 A. D.—Kamalākarabhaṭṭa, author of Nirṇaya-sindhu and Śūdrakamalākara.
- 1615 A. D.—1645 A. D.—Nīlakaṇṭha, author of Saṃskāra-mayūkha and other Mayūkhās.
- 1610 A. D.—1640 A. D.—Mitra Miśra, author of Viramītrodaya.
- 1650 A. D.—1680 A. D.—Anantadeva, author of Saṃskāra-kaustubha.
- About 1686 A. D.—Smṛtimuktāphala of Vaidyanātha.
- 1700 A. D.—1750 A. D.—Nāgojibhaṭṭa.
- 1750 A. D.—1820 A. D.—Bālabhaṭṭa, author of Bālabhaṭṭi.
- 1790 A. D. —Dharmasindhu (of Kāśīnātha).

SYNOPSIS OF CONTENTS

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CHAP. III.

105—164

Duties, disabilities and privileges of *varṇas*. *Brāhmaṇa*'s special privileges and duties—study of *veda*, teaching the *veda*, officiating at and performing sacrifices, making and receiving gifts. Rules about receiving gifts. Special duty of *śūdras* to serve higher castes. Divisions of *śūdras*. *Brāhmaṇa* in distress may do the work specially meant for *kṣatriyas* and *vaiśyas*. *Brāhmaṇa* and money-lending, agriculture, sale and barter as means of livelihood in distress. Begging. High eulogy of *brāhmaṇas*. Enumeration and discussion of special privileges claimed by *brāhmaṇas*. Disabilities of *śūdras*, viz. not authorized to study the *veda* nor to perform vedic sacrifices with vedic mantras, liability to receive higher punishment for certain offences, not to hold high offices like that of judge.

CHAP. IV.

165-179

Untouchability. Hardly any Vedic passage supports it. *Antyajās* according to the *smṛtis*. Rules about shadow of untouchables. Public roads and untouchables. Matters in which immediate relief required.

CHAP. V.

180-187

Slavery. Existence of slavery in Vedic times. Kinds of slaves in the *smṛtis*. Manumission of slaves.

CHAP. VI.

188-267

Saṁskāras. Purpose of *saṁskāras*. Divisions of *saṁskāras*. Divergence as to number of *saṁskāras*. List of *saṁskāras* named by all or most of the *smṛti* writers. *Saṁskāras* of *śūdras*. Easy expiation-provided for non-performance of *saṁskāras*. *Garbhādhāna* known from the times of the *Atharva-veda*. Procedure of *Garbhādhāna* in the *Bṛhadāraṇyaka upaniṣad* and *smṛtis*. Whether it is a *saṁskāra* of the woman or of the child. Altar in *grhya* rites. *Homa*. Preliminary rites in all *saṁskāras* such as *Gaṇapatipūjana*, *Punyāhavācana*, *Mātṛkāpūjana*, *Nāndīśrāddha*, *Pūṁsavana*, *Anavalobhana*, *Simantonnayana*, *Viṣṇubali*, *Soṣyantikarma*, *Jātakarma* and several component parts of it such as *homa*, *Medhājanana*, *Nāmakaraṇa*. How names were given at various periods; several names for the same person. Rules about names. *Karṇavedha*, *Niṣkramaṇa*, *Annaprāśana*, *Varṣavardhana*, *Caula*, *Vidyārambha*.

CHAP. VII.

268-415

Upanayana. Meaning of the word. Origin and development of this sacrament. It implies *gāyatri* upadeśa. Ancient features of *upanayana*. Originally a simple ceremony. The proper age for *upanayana* for the three *varṇas*. The auspicious time for it. Rules about the skin, the garments, the girdle and the staff of the *brahmacārin* of different *varṇas*. The preliminary rites of *Upanayana* such as *homa*. The principal rites of *upanayana*. History of *yajñopavīta* from ancient times. Rules for manufacturing and wearing *yajñopavīta*. Whether women had *upanayana* performed and could wear *yajñopavīta*. Wearing of *yajñopavīta* given up by *kṣatriyas* in the first few centuries after Christ. Whether *upanayana* performed for the blind, the deaf and dumb, idiots &c. *Upanayana* of mixed castes and of the *aśvattha* tree. Imparting of sacred *Gāyatrī* to the student.

Vyāhrtis and 'om'. Eulogy of Gāyatrī. The dharmas (duties) of brahmacārins. Bhikṣā (begging) for food by brahmacārin. Performance of Saṁdhyā twice daily and rules about the principal elements of saṁdhyā, such as ācamana, prāṇāyāma, mārjana, aghamarṣana, arghya to the sun, japa of Gāyatrī, upasthāna (worship). Nyāsas and Mudrās. Study of the veda, the first duty. Features of the ancient educational system, such as oral instruction, teaching without stipulating for a fee, student's stay with the teacher. Qualifications of a good teacher and the qualities of a good pupil. Students did work for the teacher. Rules about honouring the teacher and elders, bowing to them and about the return of greetings. Saluting women relatives and the wife of the teacher. Rules about showing courtesy and precedence on public roads. Grounds of showing respect. Duration of student-hood. Subjects of study at various periods. Corporal punishment of pupils. Education of kṣātriyas, vaiśyas, śūdras and of women. Merits and defects of the ancient system of education. The *Veda-vratas*. Perpetual (naiṣṭhika) students. *Patitasāvitrika* (whose upanayana had not been performed). Whether kṣātriyas and vaiśyas exist in the Kali age. The Vratyastoma for those whose upanayana had not been performed at all. Taking back those who had been forcibly converted or who belonged to other faiths. Tolerance in ancient India. Absorption of foreign elements. *Punarupanayana* (performing upanayana again). *Anadhyāya* (cessation of study) on various days and for various reasons. *Keśānta* or *Godāna*. *Snāna* or *Samāvartana* (the student's return from the teacher after finishing Vedic study). Rules of conduct for *snātakas*.

CHAP. VIII.

416-426

Āśramas. Origin and development of the idea of āśramas (stages of life). Number of āśramas four from the times of the most ancient dharmasūtras. Manu's theory. Brahmacarya and householder's stage well-known even to the R̥gveda. Vaikhānasa and yati in Vedic Literature. Three āśramas expressly mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad. Idea of mokṣa (release from saṁsāra). Varṇa and āśrama complementary. Three different points of view about the four āśramas.

CHAP. IX.

427-541

Marriage. The most important saṁskāra of all. Texts do not point to a society where there was promiscuity and no

marriage. Purposes of marriage. Qualifications of a desirable bridegroom. Rules for the selection of a bride. Lakṣaṇas (indicatory characteristics), *bāhya* (visible) and *ābhyantara* (invisible or inferrible). Four or five grounds for preferring a particular girl. Selecting a girl by asking her to take one out of several lumps of clay gathered from various places. In ancient times brotherless maidens not accepted as brides. No unmarried woman was deemed in medieval times to go to heaven. Restrictions as to caste, gotra, pravara and sapinda relationship. Breach of these rules rendered a so-called marriage null and void. Age of marriage for men not fixed. Age of marriage for girls varied at different periods. In the ancient sūtras girls were married about the time of puberty. Reasons for insistence on pre-puberty marriages in Yājñavalkya-smṛti and other works not clear. Examples of inter-caste marriages in Vedic Literature, in dharmā and grhya sūtras and smṛtis and in inscriptions. Anuloma marriages allowed till about the 9th century A.D. Sapinda relationship explained in the Mit. Rules about prohibition of marriage on the ground of sapinda relationship. Conflict of texts as to these rules. Marriage with one's maternal uncle's daughter. Conflict on this point among medieval writers and among several castes. Narrowing of sapinda relationship permitted by writers of digests only on the ground of usage. Meaning of '*viruddhasambandha*.' Sapinda relationship of the adopted son. Meaning of sapinda according to Dāyabhāga and Raghunandana. Marriage between sagotras and sapravaras forbidden. Meaning of 'gotra' and 'pravara' in Vedic works. Gotra and pravara of importance in several matters. Gotra in the sūtras and digests. Divisions and sub-divisions of gotras. Each gotra has one or more pravaras. Gotras of kṣatriyas and vaiśyas. Names of kṣatriya kings among gotras and pravaras. Marriage of sagotras and sapravaras void according to the writers of digests. Persons that have power to give a girl in marriage. Sale of girls in marriage in ancient times. Taking monetary consideration for one's daughter condemned. Father's power over his children. Conflict of views among writers as to ownership over one's wife and children. Infanticide, medieval and modern. Auspicious time for marriage. Medieval works introduced difficulties on astrological grounds. Forms of marriage. Meaning of rākṣasa and paisāca marriages. *Svayamvara*. Only two forms of marriage in vogue in modern times. Procedure of marriage in the Rgveda and in the grhya sūtras. List of the several elements in the marriage rite and

their description. When marriage becomes complete and irrevocable. Marriage brought about by force or fraud.

CHAP. X.

542-549

Madhuparka. Procedure of it from the sūtras. *Arkavivāha* (marriage with the arka plant). *Parivedana* (marrying before an elder brother or sister).

CHAP. XI.

550-582

Polygamy, polyandry, rights and duties on marriage. No evidence for polyandry in Sanskrit Literature except in the case of Draupadī. First duty of wife was to co-operate with the husband in all religious matters. Wife not authorised to perform religious rites independently or without husband's consent. Precedence among co-wives in religious matters. Theory of debts with which every man was supposed to be born, one being the debt to his ancestors and discharged by procreating sons. Duties of wife dwelt upon at great length in all smṛtis and digests. Foremost duty of wife is to obey her husband and honour him as god. Ideal of a *pativrātā*. Wife's conduct when husband was away from home on a journey. Supernatural powers ascribed to *pativrātā*. Wife's right of residence and maintenance. Husband's power of correction. Humane treatment even when wife guilty of adultery. No identity of husband and wife for secular or legal purposes. Position of women in ancient India. Estimate of the character of women in Sanskrit works. Passages condemning women's character. High eulogy of and reverence for the mother.

CHAP. XII.

583-598

Duties of widows. Rules of conduct for widows for one year after the death of the husband. In widowhood woman to lead an ascetic life, avoid luxuries like perfumes, flowers, chewing betelnut. Widow (except one's mother) declared to be most inauspicious. Her rights in a joint family, and as heir to husband's separate property. Widow's position improved by recent legislation. The practice of tonsure of brāhmaṇa widows has no sanction in the vedas and smṛtis (excepting one or two). Examination of texts relied upon in support of this practice. Only Skandapurāṇa and medieval digests insist on tonsure. Practice gradually evolved from about 10th or 11th century. Sentiment that a woman should not be killed on any account.

Position of women became assimilated to that of śūdras in religious matters. Certain advantages conceded to women. Practice of *purda* did not exist for women except for queens and ladies of high or noble rank.

CHAP. XIII.

599-607

Niyoga. Great divergence of views about the origin and purpose of this practice. Stringent conditions were laid down by smṛtikāras before *niyoga* could be resorted to. Breach of the conditions severely condemned and made punishable. Some even very ancient writers on dharma did not allow this practice. The Mahābhārata is full of examples of *niyoga*. Some writers held that texts permitting *niyoga* applied to śūdras or to girls who were only promised in marriage to a person but not actually married to him (as he died in the meantime). Three views upon the question 'to whom the child born of *niyoga* belonged.' *Niyoga* forbidden in the Kali age by Brhaspati and other smṛti writers.

CHAP. XIV.

608-623

Remarriage of widows. The word 'punarbhū' does not necessarily mean 'remarried widow'. Nārada on the kinds of *punarbhūs* and *svairiṇis*. Baudhāyana and Kaśyapa on 7 kinds of *punarbhū*. Smṛtis (except those of Vasiṣṭha, Nārada and one or two others) prohibit remarriage of widows. Rules for a wife whose husband is unheard of for many years. Hindu Widow's Remarriage Act of 1856. Appalling number of child widows. Verses of Ṛgveda and Atharvaveda supposed to refer to remarriage of widows examined. Divorce unknown in Vedic or Dharmaśāstra Literature. Kauṭilya on divorce. Divorce law in England and Roman Catholic countries.

CHAP. XV.

624-636

Sati. Forbidden in India from 1829. Practice of widow burning obtained in many countries. Practice of *Sati* very limited in ancient times. *Sahagamana* and *anumarāṇa*. Brāhmaṇa widows were not allowed *anumarāṇa*. References to practice of *Sati* in classical Sanskrit Literature and epigraphic records. Rewards promised to *Sati*. Some commentators were opposed to this practice. Restrictions imposed against widow-burning by the smṛtis. Procedure of the rite of widow-burning. Widow-burning more prevalent in Bengal than anywhere else owing to the higher rights of succession granted to wives.

CHAP. XVI.

637-639

Veśyā. The institution existed from Vedic times. The rights of concubines to maintenance.

CHAP. XVII.

640-695

Āhnikā and ācāra. Importance of the stage of householder. Gr̥hasthas grouped into śālīna and yāyāvara. Duties of householders described in detail in many smṛtis and digests. Various ways of dividing the day. Smṛtis usually divide the day into eight parts. Actions to be done on getting up from bed, such as hymns of praise to God, repeating the names of famous personages like Nala and of persons that are supposed to be *cirajīvins*. Auspicious and inauspicious sights on getting up from bed. Rules about answering calls of nature. Cleanliness of body (*śauca*) in various ways. Ācamana (sipping water). *Dantadhāvana* (brushing the teeth) existed from the most ancient times. What twigs to be used for it. Times when there is to be no brushing of teeth. *Snāna* (bath). Kuśas necessary in most religious acts. Rules about collecting kuśas. Snāna twice a day or thrice according to some. No bath at night (except on rare occasions). Natural water preferred to water drawn from wells or hot water. Procedure of bathing. Rules about the clay to be employed for smearing and cleaning the body. Ten good results of a bath. Six varieties of bathing with water. How one who is ill is to be purified. *Tarpana* as a constituent part of *snāna*. Clothes to be worn by a householder. Making marks on the forehead after bathing. *Ūrdhva-pundra* and *Tripundra*. Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava sectarians condemning each other's marks. *Saṁdhyā* after bath. *Homa*. Two views about performing it before or after sunrise. Agni-hotra twice daily. Three or five or six fires. When to begin maintaining gr̥hya fire. Materials for *havis*. Homa to be offered by oneself or by one's son, pupil, brother, sister's son or a similar relative. Wife or unmarried daughter may offer homa in gr̥hya fire if householder be ill. *Japa* of Vedic texts. What are maṅgala (auspicious) objects. The matters described so far occupy first eighth part of the day. In 2nd part revision of Vedic texts, collecting fuel sticks, flowers, kuśas &c. In 3rd part one was to find out means of maintenance and to earn wealth. In 4th part mid-day bath. Then *tarpana* of gods, sages and *pitṛs*. A brief *tarpana* is also prescribed.

CHAP. XVIII.

696-704

Mahāyajñas (five daily observances or sacrifices). These are mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and Taittirīya Āraṇyaka. Mahāyajñas distinguished from śrauta rites in two ways. Sentiments that prompted the five yajñas in very remote days. Later on purpose of Mahāyajñas stated to be atonement for injury to life caused by daily acts. The five yajñas in order of performance are brahmayajña, devayajña, bhūtayajña, pitṛyajña and manuṣya-yajña. *Brahmayajña*. Earliest description in Śatapatha Br. and Tai. Ār. Brahmayajña for Rgvedins described.

CHAP. XIX.

705-740

Devayajña. In sūtras homa is Devayajña. In medieval times homa receded into background and *devapūjā* took its place. Discussion whether images of gods were known in Vedic times. Meaning of *Śiśnadeva*. Phallic emblems at Mohenjo-daro. Linga worship. Images known long before Pāṇini. Erection of temples and worship of images, whether borrowed or indigenous. Substances from which images were made. Principal gods of whom images were worshipped. Ritual of image worship. Who are entitled to perform devapūjā. Śālagrāma and other sacred stones. Pañcāyatanapūjā. Ten *avatāras* of Viṣṇu. Germs of the theory in Vedic Literature. When Buddha came to be looked upon as an *avatāra* of Viṣṇu. Why Buddhism disappeared from India. Evidence for religious persecution in India very meagre. Śiva worship. Worship of Gaṇeśa and Dattātreya. Earliest description of the worship of Viṣṇu and Śiva. The 16 modes of worship (*upacāras*). Flowers in the worship of different gods. *Tāmbūla*. Namaskāras to the sun. Worship of Durgā. Analysis of devapūjā in modern times.

CHAP. XX.

741-748

Vaiśvadeva. According to some it comprises three yajñas, viz. to gods, bhūtas and pitṛs. Deities of Vaiśvadeva. Usually performed only once in the noon. Procedure of Vaiśvadeva. Views about Vaiśvadeva in relation to śrāddha. *Baliharana* or *bhūtayajña*. Daily pitṛ-yajña.

CHAP. XXI.

741-756

Nṛyajña or *Manuṣyayajña* (honouring guests). Guests honoured from Rgveda downwards. Who is an *atithi*. Modes

of showing honour to guests. Motive of the injunction about guests was universal kindness. Taking leave of a guest.

CHAP. XXII.

757-806

Bhojana (taking meals). Importance attached to purity of food. Rules about *bhojana* in Vedic Literature. Direction in which to take food. Times of taking food. Vessels to be used in *bhojana*. Preliminaries before *bhojana* (such as *ācamana*, *prāṇāhutis* &c.). Posture at time of eating. How much to eat. How *paṅktis* (rows of dinners) were distinguished. Who are *paṅktipāvana* brāhmaṇas. Etiquette at time of *bhojana*. Occasions (like eclipses) when abstaining from food was prescribed. What food should or should not be eaten. Various grounds on which food was forbidden. Flesh-eating in Vedic times. Sacredness of cow. *Pañcaganya*. Occasions when cow could be offered in sacrifices. Rules about the flesh of beasts, birds and fishes. Causes of the giving up of flesh-eating. Kṣatriyas have been meat-eaters from ancient times. Rules about taking milk and its products and about certain herbs and vegetables. Exhaustive list of persons whose food may not be taken. Great fluctuations about the rules as to whose food may not be taken by a brāhmaṇa. Laxity about food prepared with ghee, oil or milk. Food from five classes of *sūdras* could be taken by brāhmaṇas in the times of *sūtras*, but later on this was forbidden. Rules about persons who could cook and serve food for brāhmaṇas. Drinking liquor in ancient times. All intoxicants forbidden to brāhmaṇas from *sūtra* times, but some intoxicants allowed to kṣatriyas and others. *Madyas* of various kinds. *Tāmbūla* after *bhojana*. Acts to be done after *bhojana*. Rules about sleeping. Sexual intercourse between husband and wife. Rules about *Rajasvalā* (a woman in her monthly illness). Rules about the distribution of the king's duties—in the several parts of the day and night.

CHAP. XXIII.

807-818

Upākarma (starting of the session of vedic studies) and *utsarjana* (cessation from vedic studies). Divergence about time of *upākarma*. Explanation of the importance attached to the month of *Śrāvaṇa* and the *Śrāvaṇa* constellation. Procedure of *upākarma* in ancient times. Analysis of the constituents of *upākarma* in modern times. Holiday after *upākarma*. Divergence about times of *utsarjana*. Description of modern *utsarjana*.

CHAP. XXIV.

819-836

Minor grhya and other rites. Pārvaṇa sthālipāka. *Caitrī*. Sitāyajña. Śrāvaṇī and Sarpabali. Serpent-worship from ancient times. Festival in honour of Indra. *Āśvayujī*. *Āgrayana* *iṣṭi*. *Āgrahāyaṇī*. Śulagava or Īśānabali. Vāstupratisthā, ancient and modern.

CHAP. XXV.

837-888

Dāna (gifts). *Dāna* is a special feature of householder's stage. Gifts highly extolled in the R̥gveda. Gift of horses censured in some works. Gifts of land were not favoured in very early times. Difference between *dāna*, *yāga* and *homa*. Meaning of *iṣṭāpūrta*. All could make gifts (including women and *sūdras*). Persons fit and unfit to be donees. What things could be donated and what not. Three classes of things that could be given. *Dānas* of three kinds, viz. *nitya*, *naimittika* and *kāmya*. Making gifts in secret eulogised. Certain gifts should not be spurned. Gifts of certain things forbidden. Proper times for making gifts. Generally gifts not to be made at night. Gifts at times of eclipses, *samkrānti* and on *ayana* days specially recommended. Proper places for gifts. Presiding deities of various articles of gift. General procedure of making gifts. Kings were required to make various kinds of gifts to brāhmanas. Spending money for marriages of brāhmanas and settling them in houses highly eulogised. Gifts of land the most meritorious. Smṛti rules about land-grants followed in epigraphic records. Verses deprecating the resumption of gifts made by earlier kings. Prior gifts to temples and brāhmanas excepted in grants of villages. Taxes remitted in royal grants. The eight *bhogas* in relation to land grants. Discussion whether king is owner of all lands in the kingdom. Gifts called *mahādānas* described in purāṇas. Sixteen *mahādānas*. Procedure of Tulā-puruṣa and other *mahādānas*. Gift of cows highly extolled. Gifts of ten kinds called *dhenus* such as of ghee, jaggery &c. Ten kinds of gifts called *parvata* or *meru dānas* viz. of heaps of corn, salt, sesame &c. Establishing a pavilion for distributing water. Gift of books. Gifts for propitiating planets. Founding of hospitals. Expiations for accepting gifts which should not have been accepted. When gift becomes irrevocable. Kinds of invalid gifts. Gifts to dharma held void by modern courts.

CHAP. XXVI.

889-916

Pratiṣṭhā and *Utsarga* (founding of temples and dedication of wells &c.). Women and *sūdras* also could spend on *pūrta*-

dharma, though not on *iṣṭa* (vedic sacrifices). Charitable works for the benefit of the public came to be regarded as more meritorious than sacrifices. Procedure of dedicating a tank or well to the public in the *sūtras*. Procedure prescribed in *purāṇas* gradually superseded the *sūtra* procedure. Meaning of *dāna*, *pratiṣṭhā* and *utsarga*. Trees highly valued in ancient India. Trees supposed to save a man from hell just as a son did. Worship of trees. Consecration of images in temples. Image worship in a public temple or privately. Procedure of consecration of images according to the *Matsya-purāṇa*. In later times other details added from *Tantra* works. Three kinds of *Nyāsas* viz, *mātrkānyāsa*, *tattvanyāsa* and *mantranyāsa*. Consecration of the image of *Viṣṇu* from *Vaikhānasa Smārtasūtra*. Practice of attaching dancing girls to temples is comparatively ancient. When re-consecration (*punaḥ-pratiṣṭhā*) becomes necessary. *Jirṇoddhāra* (repairing or re-constructing a dilapidated temple &c.), time and procedure of. Founding of *maṭhas* (monasteries or colleges for teachers and pupils). Distinction between a temple and a *maṭha*. *Maṭhas* said to have been established by the great teacher *Śaṅkarācārya*. The origin of *maṭhas* in general. How property of *maṭha* devolves. Appointment and powers of the head of a *maṭha*. How rulers and courts in ancient and medieval times controlled administration of temple and *maṭha* properties. Modern legislation dealing with religious and charitable endowments. *Yogakṣema* is impartible. Control of founder on work dedicated to the public. Powers of a *shebait* to remove an idol or to establish another.

CHAP. XXVII.

917-929

Vānaprastha (forest hermit). *Vaikhānasa*, ancient word for *vānaprastha*. An ancient work called *Vaikhānasa sūtra* or *śāstra*. Time for becoming a *vānaprastha*. Principal points connected with being a *vānaprastha*. If he suffers from an incurable disease, he may start on the great journey till the body falls to rise no more. Intricate classification of *vānaprasthas* in *Baudhāyana-dharma-sūtra* and others. Members of all *varṇas* except *śūdras* could become *vānaprasthas*. Members of princely houses as *vānaprasthas*. Ending one's life by starting on the great journey (*mahāprasthāna*) or by fire or water or falling from a precipice when and why allowed. Historical examples of this practice. This practice prohibited in the *Kali* age. Most of the duties prescribed for *vānaprasthas*

are the same as those for saṁnyāsins. So vānaprastha stage forbidden in Kali age by the Nāradya-purāṇa and other works.

CHAP. XXVIII.

930-975

Samnyāsa (order of ascetics). Life of giving up worldly ties, of begging and contemplation on the Absolute known to the earliest Upaniṣads. Jābālopaniṣad prescribes rules for ascetics. The most salient features of saṁnyāsa gathered from the dharmaśāstras and smṛtis. Tridaṇḍi and ekadaṇḍi ascetics. Four kinds of ascetics, *kuticaka*, *bahūdaka*, *hamsa* and *paramahamsa* and their characteristics. Popular notion that the paramahamsa is beyond all rules and prohibitions combated by ancient texts. Vidvat-saṁnyāsa and vividīṣa-saṁnyāsa. The *turiyātīta* and *avadhūta* kinds of ascetics. Opinions as to whether saṁnyāsa was allowed only to brāhmanas or to all three varṇas. According to smṛtis and medieval works a śūdra could not become an ascetic. Women in rare cases adopted the ascetic mode of life. The word saṁnyāsa conveys two distinct ideas. Some held that saṁnyāsa was meant only for the blind and the cripple. Ascetics were to give up wife and home and were not to revert to householder's life. Ten orders of *advaita* saṁnyāsins following Śaṅkarācārya's doctrines and their maṭhas. Disputes among the heads of these maṭhas as to properties and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. How successors to the pontiffs of the maṭhas are appointed. How and why saṁnyāsins gave up doctrine of *ahimsā* in medieval times. A saṁnyāsin is severed from his family and loses rights of property in it. By custom certain saṁnyāsins called Gosāvis were allowed to have wives and concubines. Procedure of saṁnyāsa according to the sūtras. Procedure of saṁnyāsa according to Dharmasindhu. Principal elements are; eight śrāddhas, *sāvitripraveśa*, virajāhoma, declaration of leaving home, all wealth and desires and taking vow of *ahimsā*, giving up of topknot and sacred thread, teaching by guru of *pañcīkaraṇa* and *mahāvākyas* (like tat tvam-asi), giving of a new name by the teacher, *yogapaṭṭa* (p. 962), *paryāṅka-śauca*. Saṁnyāsa *in extremis* (ātura-saṁnyāsa). Controversies about giving up śikhā and yajñopavīta. Daily duties of an ascetic. No impurity on his death for his relatives and *vice versa*. Ascetic heads of maṭhas claim in modern times jurisdiction in matters of caste, excommunication, expiations for lapses. In ancient times *pariṣads* (assemblies of learned

men) exercised these functions and kings acted on their advice. The number of persons required to constitute a *pariṣad* for deciding a doubtful point about dharma. *Śiṣṭas* constitute a *pariṣad*. Meaning of *śiṣṭa*. The council of eight ministers established by Shivaḥ and the duties of the Panditrao, one of these eight. Panditrao took advice of the *pariṣads* of learned brāhmaṇas on questions of re-admission of converts, expiations &c. Many features of asceticism are common to all religions. It is a partial truth that Indians have the highest regard for the ascetic.

CHAP. XXIX.

976-1008

Śrauta (Vedic) sacrifices. Deep study of vedic sacrifices essential for the proper understanding of Vedic Literature, for appreciating the influence of that Literature on varṇas. Chronology uncertain. Works, ancient and modern, on Vedic sacrifices. Jaimini on interpretation of Vedic texts relating to sacrifices. Cult of yajña existed in Indo-Iranian period. Literary and epigraphic evidence for the performance of Vedic sacrifices by kings after the advent of Buddha. Grants made by kings for enabling brāhmaṇas to perform agnihotra &c. The references to sacrificial matters in the R̥gveda. General rules applicable in all sūtras. Mantras of four kinds, *ṛk*, *yajus*, *sāman* and *nigada*. Different kinds of ladles. Sacrificial utensils. The several fires. The five bhūsaṃskāras. *Agnyādheya*. Choosing the devayajana (place of worship). Procedure of agnyādheya. *Punarādheya*. *Agnihotra* in the morning and evening. Rules about agnihotra when the householder goes away from home either alone or with his wife.

CHAP. XXX.

1009-1090

Darśapūrṇamāsa (New moon and Full moon sacrifices). Time for starting the performance of darśapūrṇamāsa. Anvārambhaṇīyā iṣṭi, śākhāharaṇa, barhiraḥaraṇa (bringing bundles of kuśa grass), idhmāharaṇa (bringing fuel-sticks), *Sāyamdoha*. *Upavasatha* day. *Sānnāḥya*. *Brahmavarana* (choosing the brahmā priest). *Praṇītā* waters. *Nirvāpa* (taking out sacrificial material). Prokṣaṇa (sprinkling) of sacrificial material, utensils &c. The *Haviṣkṛt* call. Beating the grains of rice. Baking cake (puroḍāśa) on potsherds. Construction of vedi (altar). *Patnīsaṃmahana* (girding up the sacrificer's wife). Barhiraḥaraṇa (strewing the vedi with kuśas). Fifteen Sāmidhenī verses. *Pravaramantra* (invocation of fire). The two āghāras

(pouring of ājya in a continuous stream). *Hotṛvaraṇa*. The *Prayājyas* (five offerings). *Vaṣaṭkāra*. *Ājyabhāgas* (two). The principal sacrifice of portions of the cake. Offering to Agni *sviṣṭakṛt*. Cutting off a portion of the cake called *prāṣitra* (for brahmā). *Idā* cut off from *puroḍāśa*. A thin long slice of *puroḍāśa* for *yajamāna*. Invocation of *Idā* by the *hotṛ*. *Brahmā* eats *prāṣitra*, *hotṛ* eats *avāntareḍā*, all priests together with the *yajamāna* partake of *idā*. Division of *puroḍāśa* for Agni into four parts and eating of the portions by the four priests. *Mārjana* thereafter. Cooking a mess of boiled rice (called *anvāhārya*) as fee for the four priests. The three *anuyāja* offerings. Recitation of *sūktavāka*. Throwing of *prastara* bunch and *śākhā* into fire. *Śamnyuvāka*. Throwing the *paridhis* on fire. *Patnīsamnyūjas*. *Phalīkaraṇahoma*. *Samsthājapa* by *hotṛ*. *Samistayajus* offerings. *Adhvaryu* and *brahmā* leave the sacrificial hall. *Yajamāna* takes *Viṣṇu* strides. Final prayer by *yajamāna*. *Pinḍapitṛyajña*.

CHAP. XXXI.

1091-1108

Cāturmasyas (seasonal sacrifices). Four *Cāturmāsyas* each called a *parvan*, viz. *Vaiśvadeva*, *Varunapraghāsa*, *Sākamedha* and *Śunāsīriya*, respectively performed on Full moon days of *Phālguna*, *Āṣāḍha*, *Kārtika* and on the 5th full moon day from *Sākamedha* or two or three days before it. Observances on all *parvan* days such as shaving head and face, not using a cot, avoiding meat, honey, salt and sexual intercourse. Five offerings common to all *Cāturmāsyas*. *Cāturmāsyas* may be performed throughout life or for one year. Three special offerings in *Vaiśvadeva-parva*. Nine *prayājyas* and nine *anuyājas* in *Vaiśvadeva*. *Varunapraghāsa* performed in rainy season outside the house. Two *vedis* prepared, to north and south, respectively in charge of *adhvaryu* and *pratiprasthātr*. Procedure is like that of *Vaiśvadeva*. Four special offerings in this in addition to five common to all. Procedure of *Varunapraghāsa*. The wife has to declare or indicate if she has any paramour. Concluding *avabhṛtha* (bath) in a river or the like. *Sākamedha* requires two days. Three *iṣṭis* and a *mahāvahis* of eight offerings to eight deities. Then *pitṛyajña* (called *mahāpitṛyajña*) on a separate *vedi*. Also *Traiyaṃbaka* *homa* offered to *Rudra*. *Śunāsīriyaparvan* has three special offerings to *Śunāsīrau*, *Vāyu* and *Sūrya*. *Iṣṭi* called *Āgrayana* (offering of first fruits) in *Śarad* on Full moon day. Other *iṣṭis* performed for some specific objects e. g. *putreṣṭi* for son, *Kārīrīṣṭi* for rain &c.

CHAP. XXXII.

1109-1132

Nirūḍhapasubandha or *Paśubandha* (animal sacrifice). A victim is offered in Somayāga also, but as part of it. *Nirūḍha-paśu* is an independent sacrifice to be performed by an *āhūtāgni* every six months or once a year. Six priests required in this sacrifice. Procedure of animal sacrifice. Selecting a tree and making a *yūpa* (sacrificial post) and a head piece (*caśāla*) for the post. Preparing a *vedi* and a raised platform on it called *uttaravedi* and a square hole thereon called *nābhi*. Animals sacrificed for Indra-Agni or Sūrya or Prajāpati. Eleven *prayāja* offerings. Verses from *Āpri* hymns employed. The eleven *prayāja* deities. *Śāmitra* fire for roasting omentum of the victim. Hotṛ's recitation of the *Adhrigu* formula. Choking to death or strangling of the he-goat. Omentum taken out and offered by the *adhvaryu* into *Āhavanīya* fire for Indra-Agni or Sūrya or Prajāpati. Six priests, sacrificer and his wife perform *Mārjana*. The limbs of the victim that are cut off, and portions of which are offered as *paśu-puroḍāśa*. Heart of victim is roasted with a pike on *śāmitra* fire and offered as *havis* to Manotā. Priests and sacrificer partake of *iḍū* constituted by remnants of the limbs of the victim. *Upayāja* offerings of a part of the entrails along with the *Anuyāja* offerings. The hotṛ repeats the formula called *Sūktavāka*. *Maitrāvaruṇa* throws his staff into fire. Offerings of *Patni-samyājas* with portions of the tail. *Kāmyāḥ Paśavaḥ* (animal sacrifices from various desires). *Ekādaśīna*, a group sacrifice of eleven victims.

CHAP. XXXIII.

1133-1203

Agniṣṭoma. Sacrifices are divided into *iṣṭi*, *paśu* and *soma*. Seven forms of *soma* sacrifices, *Agniṣṭoma*, *Atyagniṣṭoma*, *Ukthya* &c. *Soma* sacrifices divided into *ekāha*, *ahīna* and *sattra*. *Jyotiṣṭoma*, often identified with *Agniṣṭoma*, usually lasts for five days. Chief rites performed on those five days. Time for performing *Agniṣṭoma*. Priests invited and honoured with *Madhuparka*. Requesting the king for sacrificial ground (*devayajana*). Sacrificer and his wife undergo *apsu-dikṣā* and subsist on milk or light food. Purification of both with bunches of *darbhas*. Procedure of *dikṣanīyā iṣṭi* after which sacrificer comes to be called *dikṣita*. Even a *kṣatriya* sacrificer was announced as a *brāhmaṇa*. Observances of the *dikṣita* and his wife and people's conduct towards him. Observance of silence by sacrificer twice daily. The *prāyanīyā iṣṭi*. Purchase of *Soma* and the drama of higgling about its price. Cow offered as its price is taken back. Bundle

of Soma stalks placed on antelope skin spread on a cart, that is brought to the east of the prāgvaṁśa. Recital of the Subrahmaṇyā litany by the Subrahmaṇya priest. A goat is presented to king Soma. Oxen are released from the cart, soma bundle taken out of the cart, placed on a couch of udumbara wood and brought to the south of the āhavanīya. Ātithyeṣṭi (iṣṭi for hospitably receiving king Soma) follows. Then comes Tanūnaptra (a solemn covenant of the sacrificer and priests not to injure each other). Pravargya and Upasad follow. Pravargya was a sublime rite supposed to endow sacrificer with a new body. Not necessary in every Agniṣṭoma. The heated milk is called gharma and the pot of heated milk Mahavīra or Samrāt. Wife was not to look at it (at least in the beginning), nor śūdras. On 2nd, 3rd and 4th days Pravargya and Upasad performed twice. How pravargya apparatus is discharged (udvāsana). Upasad is an iṣṭi. Mantras repeated in Upasad refer to sieges of iron, silver and gold castles. On 2nd day of upasads Mahāvedi is prepared, on which a quadrangular platform (called uttaravedi) is raised and a square hole called nābhi is made on which fire is brought on the 4th day from the original āhavanīya. Erection of the harvidhāna-maṇḍapa in which two carts are kept. Digging of four holes (called uparavas) below the forepart of the shafts of the southern cart. A mound (khara) to east of uparavas for keeping soma vessels on. Erection of sadas to the west of the havirdhāna maṇḍapa. Planting of an udumbara post in sadas. Preparing eight dhiṣṇyas (seats), six in sadas, one in the āgnīdhriya shed and the eighth in the mārjālīya shed. On uparavas kuśas are spread, over which two boards of udumbara are placed and a hide thereon. On the hide are stones for crushing soma stalks. Offering of an animal to Agni-Soma. Then follow offerings of ājya called Vaisarjina to Soma. Fire is carried to the uttaravedi, and established on āgnīdhra dhiṣṇya. Bringing Vasatīvarī water in a jar and keeping it in āgnīdhra shed. Last day is called 'sutyā'. Repeating of a long prayer called Prātaranuvāka by hotṛ long before day-break to Agni, Uṣas and Aśvins. Making ready of five offerings. Filling of ekadhana pitchers by adhvaryu and of pannejana vessel by the sacrificer's wife. Extracting Soma from a few stalks, filling the upāmsugraha and offering its contents. Then comes Mahābhiṣava (principal pressing). Offering soma from various cups to several deities. Vipruḍ-ghoma. Priests come creeping towards the north corner of the great vedi, where the

Bahispavamāna laud is to be chanted by the udgātr, prastotr and the prati-hartr. Some of the other priests and the sacrificer become choristers. The nine verses of the Bahispavamāna stotra set out from the R̥gveda and method of their manipulation when sung in the sāma chant exhibited. Notes on the parts and svaras of sāmans. Rites of offering the savaniya animal. The five savaniya offerings of cake &c. Offerings of soma from *dvidevutya grahas* (cups). *Camasonnayana* (filling of nine camasas) for the priests called Camasādhvaryus. The offering of soma from the cups called *śukra* and *manthin*. Two chips of wood offered to the asuras, Śaṇḍa and Marka. Acchāvāka priest's request and filling his camasa with soma. Offering of *rtugrahas*. Kṣatriyas were not authorised to drink soma. The hotr performs japa, āhāva (hotr's call) to which there is *pratigara* (response of adhvaryu), hotr offers prayer called *tūṣṇīm-śamsa*, twelve clauses of *nivid*, then hotr recites the *ājyaśāstra*. Enumeration and distribution of the twelve stotras and śāstras of Agniṣṭoma. Explanation of *stoma*, *stobha* and *stotra*. Meaning of Rathantara and other sāmans. Chanting of stotras other than Bahispavamāna near audumbarī post in sadas. Four ājya-stotras in morning pressing. The 2nd śāstra called Prauga recited by hotr and three more repeated by maitrāvaruṇa, brāhmaṇacchaṁsin and acchāvāka. At the end of morning pressing priests go out of the sadas. For the mid-day pressing priests again enter sadas. Procedure of mid-day pressing similar to that of morning pressing. The priest grāvastut wears the cloth, in which soma stalks were tied, as a turban and repeats many verses from the R̥gveda. The chanting of the Mādhyandina-pavamāna-stotra. The dadhigharma rite, then the offering of paśu puroḍāśa and the five savaniya offerings (cake &c.). Distribution of dakṣiṇā to the several priests, sight-seers and others. The yajamāna throws antelope horn in cātvala pit. Five offerings called Vaiśvakarmaṇa. The Marutvatiya śāstra. Prṣṭha-stotra and Niṣkevalya śāstra. Three more Prṣṭha stotras and three śāstras recited by maitrāvaruṇa and two others. Procedure of evening pressing similar to mid-day pressing. Ārbhava-pavamāna chanted. Rbhus connected with third pressing. *Haris* prepared from savaniya paśu offered. Vaiśvadeva śāstra. The Pātnivata cup to Agni Patnivat. Chanting of Yajñāyajñīya stotra also called Agniṣṭomasāman. Wife of sacrificer pours *pāṇnejana* water over her thigh and udgātr priest looks at her. Agnimāruta-śāstra recited by hotr. Hāriyojana cup offered to

Indra. All priests wait on āhavanīya with *Mindū* mantras. Avabhṛtha (final bath). All vessels except four sthālis are thrown into water. Yajamāna casts antelope skin in cātvala pit. Avabhṛtha sāman chanted. The *nīdhana* of the sāman is repeated by all priests, yajamāna and his wife at three places on their way to reservoir of water. Yajamāna and wife enter water, rub each other's back. Handful of kuśa thrown in avabhṛtha iṣṭi. Puroḍāśa offered to Varuṇa and then to Agni and Varuṇa. The unnetṛ brings out yajamāna, wife and priests. They offer fuel sticks. The Udayaniyā iṣṭi (concluding). Anubandhyā rite (offering of a barren cow to Mitra and Varuṇa) or only *payasyā*. Then five offerings called Devikā to Dhātṛ, Anumati, Rākā, Sinivālī and Kuhū. Udavasāniyā iṣṭi like punarārdheya. Theories about the identity of the soma plant and its relation to the moon. In the Deccan a substitute called 'rānsēra' is employed for soma.

CHAP. XXXIV.

1204-1223

Other soma sacrifices. Brief descriptions of Ukthya, Śoḍaśin, Atyagniṣṭoma, Atirātra and Aptoryāma. Vājapeya may be regarded as an independent sacrifice. Number 17 predominant in it. 17 cups of soma and 17 cups of surā for Prajāpati. A race with 17 chariots and 17 drums beaten. Vājapeya to be performed only by a brāhmaṇa or kṣatriya who desired super-eminence or overlordship. Horses of the chariots are made to smell *caru* of wild rice. When race starts brahmā priest repeats Vāji-sāman. An udumbara post as the goal for the chariot race. Chariot of sacrificer is in front and the rest follow at a distance. Chariots go round udumbara post and return to sacrificial ground. The principal wine cup is held by the pratiprasthātṛ and other sixteen are held by those who joined in the race and they are drunk by those latter. Ladder raised against yūpa and the sacrificer climbs up and holds a dialogue with his wife. Animals for Prajāpati are offered at time of mid-day pressing. Adhvaryu declares yajamāna to be *samrāt*. Certain observances after Vājapeya. Fees distributed are 1700 cows, 17 chariots with four horses yoked to each, 17 *dāsīs* &c. After Vājapeya a king should perform Rājasūya and a brāhmaṇa Bṛhaspatisava. Jaimini's conclusions about Vājapeya. Viśvajit, Gosava and Sarvasvāra among Ekāha sacrifices briefly described. *Ahina* sacrifices extending over two to twelve days of soma pressing. Description of the twelve days of the Dvādaśāha. Differences between Dvādaśāha as an ahina and as a sattra. *Rājasūya*. A

very complex ceremony extending over a long period (over two years), and comprising many separate *iṣṭis*, soma sacrifices and animal sacrifices. *Rājasūya* to be performed only by *kṣatriyas*. Its relation to *Vājapeya*. *Dikṣā* on first day of bright half of *Phālguna*. The *Pavitra* sacrifice which is like *Agniṣṭoma*. One year thereafter *Abhiṣecaniya*. Five offerings one on each day after *Pavitra* sacrifice. On Full moon of *phālguna* *iṣṭi* to *Anumati*. *Cāturmāsya*s performed for one year, between the *parvans* of which *darśa* and *pūrṇamāsa* rites are celebrated. After *Śunāsriya* several rites. Twelve offerings called '*ratnīnām havīṃśi*' on twelve days in the houses of the *ratnas* (viz. the king, his queens, state officers &c.) offered to different deities. *Abhiṣecaniya* (consecration) rite on first of *Caitra* and follows procedure of *Ukthya*. Eight offerings called *Devasūhaviṃśi*. Waters of seventeen kinds in seventeen vessels of *udumbara* from *Sārasvatī* river and other sources. *Pārtha* homas. Holy water taken in four vessels. Sacrificer recites *avid* formulae. Four principal priests sprinkle him with water from four vessels and a *kṣatriya*, *vaiśya* and a friend of the king do the same. Story of *Śunaḥśepa* recited by *hotṛ* for sacrificer's benefit. King takes three strides called *Viṣṇukramas*. Remnants of anointing water handed by king to his son. Symbolic march for plunder of cows. Dice-play which is so arranged that best throw comes to the king. *Avabhṛtha* follows. For ten days after *Abhiṣecaniya* offerings called '*Samsr̥pām havīṃśi*' are made to *Savitṛ* and other deities. The *Daśapeya*, in which each of the *camasas* of soma are drunk by ten *brāhmaṇas* (i. e. in all 100). Very large *dakṣiṇās* prescribed e. g. some say 240000 cows should be presented. After *Daśapeya* some observances are kept by the sacrificer for one year. At the end of the year, the *keśavapāniya* ceremony took place. Then two rites called *Vyuṣṭi-dvirātra* at the interval of a month. One month after 2nd *Vyuṣṭidvirātra* the *Kṣatradhṛti* rite. One month after that the *Sautrāmaṇi iṣṭi*.

CHAP. XXXV.

1224-1255

Sautrāmaṇi and other sacrifices. *Sautrāmaṇi* is one of the seven *Haviryajñas* according to *Gautama*. Chief characteristic was offering of *surā* (wine) in it, in modern times milk being offered instead. *Kokili* and *Caraka-sautrāmaṇi*. Procedure of both. *Sautrāmaṇi* takes four days, during first three of which wine is prepared from various ingredients and on last day, three cups of milk and three of wine were offered. Three goats

were killed in this and fourth to Bṛhaspati. Method of preparing wine described. Remnants of the wine offered were not drunk by the priests, but a brāhmaṇa was hired for drinking them or they were poured on an ant-hill. Persons for whom Sautrāmaṇī was offered. Avabhr̥tha and then āmikṣa to Mitra-Varuṇa and an animal to Indra. *Aśvamedha*. Horse-sacrifice in vogue even in Ṛgveda. It was a sacrifice for three days, to be performed by a king. Time of commencement. The four queens accompanied by princesses and large retinue come near the king. Rules about colour and qualities of horse. Guards of the horse, when it is let off to roam over the country. During horse's absence for a year three iṣṭis every day to Savitr̥. Chants by a brāhmaṇa after the iṣṭis every day and also by a kṣatriya lute-player. Hotṛ recites to the king surrounded by his sons and ministers the narrative called 'Pāriplava.' Every day for a year four oblations called Dhṛti made in the āhavanīya. At the end of the year horse was brought back and sacrificer took dīkṣā. 21 yūpas, each 21 aratnis high. Large number of animals tied to yūpas slaughtered. Horse taken to a lake, bathed in it, brought back and anointed by the queens on various parts of the body. Dialogue between hotṛ and brahmā. When horse killed, queens go round horse, fan it with their garments, crowned queen lies by the side of the horse and both are covered with mantle. Abusive and obscene dialogues between hotṛ and crowned queen, between brahmā and favourite wife, between four principal priests and chamberlain on one side and the queens and their attendants on the other. Fat and blood of the horse offered. *Brahmodya* (theological dialogue of questions and riddles). *Mahiman* offerings. Remnants of these sprinkled over the king and offering to 12 months. Avabhr̥tha on third pressing day. Offerings on the head of a bald man who dips into water to 'Jumbaka' (Varuṇa). When sacrificer comes out of water after avabhr̥tha bath, persons guilty of grave sins plunge into it and become free from sins. Large fees on first and third pressing days. *Aśvamedha* rare even in ancient times. Description of *Aśvamedha* in the Mahābhārata. Epigraphic references to *Aśvamedha*. *Sattras*. Their duration is from twelve days to a year or more. *Dvādaśāha* is the archetype. *Sattras* divided into two classes, *rātrisattras* and *sāmvatsarika*. *Gavāmayana* is model of all *sattras* of one year or more. Scheme of the parts of *Gavāmayana*. When dīkṣā commenced. General rules applicable to all *sattras*. Though all are *yajamānas* and

also priests in a sattra, one of them is called gr̥hapati. Peculiar procedure followed as to dikṣā. *Brahmodya* on 10th day or abuse of Prajāpati. Rules to be observed while dikṣā lasts. Most interesting day is Mahāvratā, which is the last day but one in sattras. Harp with a hundred strings, brāhmaṇa and śūdra engage in praise and abuse of those engaged in sattra. Fight of ārya and śūdra for a white circular skin; abuse by harlot and brahmacārin of one another. Drums beaten on corners of vedi. Wives of sacrificers become choristers for chanting. Dance round mārjālīya by servants and slave-girls singing popular airs referring to cows. Sattras of a thousand years believed even by ancient writers to be mythical and Jaimini states that in such descriptions samvatsara means 'a day'.

Agnicayana (piling of the fire altar). This rite is the most complicated and recondite of all śrauta sacrifices. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa is leading work on it. Fundamental conceptions underlying it are cosmological. Construction of fire altar in five layers is an aṅga of Somayāga. Five victims are first offered. Heads built up into altar. Clay for the bricks how brought, mixed and prepared. First brick called Aṣāḍhā prepared by wife of sacrificer. Ukhā (pan) prepared from same clay, from which he prepares three bricks called Viśvajyotis. Other bricks prepared. Description of the piling of the altar in five layers. Several forms of altar and of bricks. Bricks are of various sizes and have various names. Three bricks called svayamātrīpñāḥ. Ground measured and ploughed. Furrows sown with several corns. Several things such as a lotus leaf, golden ornament, golden image of a man are first placed, then a living tortoise is enveloped in moss and made motionless and then altar is constructed on it. Each of five layers contains 200 bricks according to Satyāṣāḍha, but others give larger numbers. Time required for piling varies. Peculiar mode of cooling altar. Numerous offerings. Procedure of Somayāga followed with a few variations. Observances for a year after *cayana*.

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N. B. Works referred to only once or twice and most of those already set out on pp. 19n, 179n, 195n, 321n, 624n, 713n have been omitted.

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HISTORY OF DHARMAŚĀSTRA

VOLUME II

CHAPTER I

THE TOPICS OF DHARMAŚĀSTRA

Manifold are the topics that have been included under Dharmaśāstra from very ancient times. The Dharma-sūtras of Gautama, Baudhāyana, Āpastamba and Vasiṣṭha deal in greater or less detail principally with the following subjects: the several *varṇas* (classes), *āśramas* (stages of life), their privileges, obligations and responsibilities; the *samskāras* performed on an individual (from *garbhādhāna* to *antyeṣṭi*); the duties of the *brahmacārin* (the first āśrama); *anadhyāyas* (holidays on which Vedic study was stopped); the duties of a *snātaka* (one who has finished the first stage of life); *vivāha* (marriage) and all matters connected therewith; the duties of the *gṛhastha* (house-holder's stage); *śauca* (daily purification of body); the five daily *yajñas*; *dāna* (gifts); *bhakṣyābhakṣya* (what food should one partake of and what not); *śuddhi* (purification of persons, vessels, clothes &c.); *āśauca* (impurity on birth and death); *antyeṣṭi* (rites on death); *śrāddha* (rites performed for the deceased ancestors and relatives); *śtrīdharmā* (special duties of women) and *śtrīpūṇḍharmā* (duties of husband and wife); *dharma*s of *kṣatriyas* and of kings; *vyavahāra* (judicial procedure, and the sphere of substantive law such as crimes and punishments, contracts, partition and inheritance, adoption, gambling &c.); the four principal classes, mixed castes and their proper avocations; *āpaddharma* (actions and avocations permitted to the several castes in extreme difficulties); *prāyaścitta* (sins and how to expiate them); *karmavipāka* (results of evil deeds done in past lives); *śānti* (rites on the happening of portents or for propitiating the planets &c.); duties of *vānaprastha* (forest hermit) and *sannyāsin* (ascetic). All these subjects are not treated in any fixed or settled order in the sūtra works. To take only one example, the subject of partition and inheritance occurs at the end of the dharmaśūtra of Gautama, while Vasiṣṭha places the same subject in the middle of his work (17th chapter) and Āpastamba deals with those topics after finishing

three-fourths of his work (in IL 6. 14). Further, some works on *dharmaśāstra* give very elaborate treatment of certain topics of which only faint traces are found in the ancient *dharmaśāstras* and metrical *smṛtis*. Such topics are *vratas* (which may be looked upon as extensions of the subject of gifts), *utsarga* and *pratiṣṭhā* (dedication of works of public utility and of temples and shrines), *tīrtha* (sacred places and pilgrimages to them), *kāla* (auspicious times, festivals &c.).

A glance at the above list will convince anyone how the conception of *dharma* was a far-reaching one, how it embraced the whole life of man. The writers on *dharmaśāstra* meant by *dharma* not a creed or religion but a mode of life or a code of conduct, which regulated a man's work and activities as a member of society and as an individual and was intended to bring about the gradual development of a man and to enable him to reach what was deemed to be the goal of human existence.

From this standpoint various divisions of *dharma* were suggested. *Dharma* was divided into *śrauta* and *smṛta*. The first comprised those rites and ceremonies with which the Vedic *Saṃhitās* and *Brāhmaṇas* were chiefly concerned, such as consecration of the three sacred fires, the Full moon and New moon sacrifices, the solemn *soma* rites &c. The *smṛta* comprised those topics that were specially dealt with by the *smṛtis* and that concerned the various classes and stages of life.¹ The present work will concern itself principally with *smṛta dharma* and *śrauta dharma* will be dealt with concisely in an appendix. Some works divide *dharma* into *śrauta* (Vedic), *smṛta* (based upon *smṛtis*) and *śiṣṭācāra* (the actions of the respected in society)². This classification is based on the three sources of *dharma* viz., *śruti*, *smṛti* and *śiṣṭācāra*, as observed by Baudhāyana.³ Another and more comprehensive classification says that *dharma* is sixfold, viz. *dharma* of *varṇas* (injunctions based on *varṇa* alone such as 'a *brāhmaṇa* should never drink wine' or 'a *brāhmaṇa* should not be killed'), *ūśramadharmā*

1. दाराशिंहोत्रसम्बन्धमिज्या औतस्य लक्षणम् । स्मार्तो वर्णाश्रमाचारो यमैश्च नियमैर्युतः ॥ मत्स्यपुराण 144. 30-31; वायुपुराण 59. 31-32 and 39; 'अन्याधानादि-पूर्वकोऽधीतप्रत्यक्षवेदमूलो दर्शपूर्णमासादिः औतः । अनुमितपरोक्षशास्त्रामूलः शौचाचमनादिः स्मार्तः ॥ परा. मा. I. part 1 p. 64.

2. वेदोक्तः परमो धर्मः स्मृतिशास्त्रगतोऽपरः । शिष्टाचरिणः परः प्रोक्तश्च यो धर्माः सनातनाः ॥ अनुशासनपर्व 141. 65; वनपर्व 207. 83 'वेदोक्तः धर्मशास्त्रेषु चापरः । शिष्टाचारश्च शिष्टानां त्रिविधं धर्मलक्षणम् ॥'; *vide* शान्ति 354. 6 also.

3. उपदिष्टो धर्मः प्रतिवेदम् । ... स्मार्तो द्वितीयः । तृतीयः शिष्टागमः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 1. 1-4.

(such rules as 'begging' and 'carrying a staff' enjoined on a brahmacārī'), *varṇāśrama-dharma* (rules of conduct enjoined on a man because he belongs to a particular class and is in a particular stage of life, such as 'a brāhmaṇa *brahmacārī* should carry a staff of *palāśa* tree'), *guṇadharmā* (such as protection of subjects in the case of a crowned king), *naimittika dharma* (such as expiation on doing what is forbidden), *sādhārana dharma* (what is common to all humanity viz., *ahiṃsā* and other virtues).⁴ This classification appears to have been an ancient one. Medhātithi on Manu II. 25 speaks of fivefold dharma (only omitting *sādhārana dharma* from the abovementioned six) and quotes the explanations of them from the expounders of smṛtis. Hemādri (*vṛata-khaṇḍa* p. 5) quotes 16 verses from the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa on the six-fold dharma.⁵ It will be noticed from the above that all matters (except *sādhārana* or *sāmānya dharma*) have *varṇa* and *āśrama* as the pivots round which the whole of dharmaśāstra revolves. It is therefore that in ancient smṛtis like those of Manu (I. 2 and 107) and Yājñavalkya (I. 1) the sages are represented as asking the great expounders of those codes to impart to them instruction in the dharmas of *varṇas* and *āśramas*.

Before embarking upon any treatment of *varṇas* it would not be out of place to say a few words about dharmas common to all humanity. Our dharmaśāstra works do not enter into any subtle or detailed examination of the principles of ethics or of the moral standard, nor are the concepts of duty, happiness or perfection subjected to any searching analysis.⁶ But

4. इह पञ्चप्रकारो धर्म इति विवरणकाराः प्रपञ्चयन्ति । मेधा- on मनु II. 25; अत्र च धर्मशब्दः षड्विधस्मार्तधर्मविषयः । तद्यथा-वर्णधर्म आश्रमधर्मो वर्णाश्रमधर्मो गुणधर्मो निमित्तधर्मः साधारणधर्मश्चेति । मितक्षरा on या. I. 1.

5. Kullūka on Manu II. 25 and the Kṛtyaratnākara pp. 9-10 do the same. It is to be noted that some of these very verses are quoted as from Sumantu by the Smṛticandrikā. (I p. 6).

6. Reference may be made to the 'Ethics of India' by Prof. Hopkins (1924) and 'Hindu Ethics' by Dr. John McKenzie in 'Religious quest of India' series. The former work is marked by a detached and fair attitude towards the ideas of the ancient Indians and their writings. The latter, I am sorry to say, is marred by the unsympathetic and supercilious attitude of a Christian missionary. Its key-note is perverse inasmuch as the foundation of the author's criticism is the notion that one is not really moral unless one is engaged in active social service. There is very little warrant for

this does not at all mean that the principles of ethics were passed over by dharmaśāstra works or were not highly thought of by them. From very ancient times truth is exalted above everything else. Rgveda VII.104.12 says⁷ 'True speech and

(Continued from last page)

this hypothesis in well-known⁸ works on Ethics. To expose the fallacies in Principal McKenzie's work would require a volume. But a few words must be said here. What particular brand of active social service the learned author has in view is difficult to follow. I would like to make him a present of the following lines from the Encyclopædia Britannica on Social Service 'The term social service is a comparatively new one in Great Britain. If it had been used previous to the 20th century it would have meant philanthropy and charity in the ordinary sense'. If the learned author means that ancient India never insisted on universal philanthropy and charity, he has read the Indian Literature in vain. Every house-holder was called upon by the Hindu Śāstras to offer food according to his ability to students, ascetics and to all beings including the untouchable cāṇḍālas and even dogs and crows. Every brāhmaṇa who could teach had to do so without demanding any fee beforehand. *Maths* were established in all parts of India for expounding religious books, feeding students and the poor. There are *annasatras* even now where hundreds are fed every day. No necessity arose throughout the ages for a Poor Law in India with its attendant evils well portrayed in Dickens' famous master-piece 'Oliver Twist'. The above were some of the different aspects of philanthropy and charity which are now dubbed social service. In the third century B. C. Aśoka had established hospitals not only for men but even for beasts and Yāj. 1.209 equates the free nursing of sick persons with gifts of cows. The learned Professor asks with an air of triumph and condemnation of all Indian morality (p. 251) 'Is there anything comparable to the movement which St. Francis of Assisi initiated and led?' The learned Professor has fallen into the frequent error of comparing a movement of the 13th century with Indian ideas over 2000 years old. Again I shall quote words from the Encyclopædia Britannica. 'It would be an anachronism to think of Francis as a philanthropist or social worker or a revivalist preacher, though he fulfilled the functions of all these. Before every thing he was an ascetic and mystic'. The particular brands of Social Service that are now in vogue are mainly due to the ravages of Imperialism and extreme capitalistic tendencies. Besides he forgets that even the movement started by St. Francis had schisms and was guilty of all the moral evils that are associated with Western monastic institutions. Vide the recent and lucid book of Sir Sivaswamy Aiyer on 'Evolution of Hindu moral ideals' (1935, Calcutta University).

7. सुविज्ञानं विकिरुषे जनाय सञ्जासच्च वचसी पस्पृधाते । तयोर्व्यस्तत्यं यतरहुजीय-
स्तद्विस्तोमोवति हन्यसत् ॥ अ. VII. 104. 12.

false speech run a race against each other. Soma protects out of the two what is true and what is very straight-forward and strikes down what is false'. The conception of *ṛta* in the Rgveda is a sublime one and is the germ of the later doctrine of the rule of dharma. The Śatapatha-brāhmaṇa (S. B. E. vol. 44 p.85) enjoins 'therefore let a man speak naught but truth'⁸. In the Taittirīyopaniṣad (I. II. 1), the teacher when taking leave of his pupil at the end of the latter's studenthood places truth in the forefront of his exhortation and dharma next.⁹ In the Chāndogya (III. 17) there is an allegory of a Soma sacrifice on life, where the dakṣiṇā (fee to be paid) is fivefold viz. the five virtues of tapas (asceticism), dāna (charity), ārjava (straightforwardness), ahimsā (non-injury to sentient beings), satyavacana (truthfulness). The Br. Up. remarks that truth and dharma are in practical life identical terms.¹⁰ One of the noblest prayers in all literature occurs in the Br. Up. (I. 3.28) 'from falsehood lead me unto truth, from darkness lead me unto light, from death lead me unto immortality'. The Mundakopaniṣad says 'only truth is victorious and not falsehood; the path of the gods is spread out by (the pursuit of) truth'. The Br. Up. inculcates on all the great need of three cardinal virtues, viz. self-restraint, *dayā* (compassion or love for all sentient life) and dāna (gifts or charity).¹¹ The Chān. Up. says that the world of Brahman is free from all evil and only those who have lived as chaste students can enter the world of *brahma*. The Chān. Up. V. 10 sternly condemns five sins, viz. theft of gold, drinking spirits, murder of a brāhmaṇa, defiling of one's guru's bed and association with these, as the greatest sins and in V. 11. 5 Aśvapati exultantly declares that in his kingdom there were no grave sinners. The Kathopaniṣad (I. 2.23) insists¹² upon cessation from evil

8. Compare शतपथब्रा. I. 1. 1. 1. 'अमेध्यो वै पुरुषो यद्वृत्तं वदति' and I. 1. 1. 5. 'स वै सत्यमेव वदेत्'.

9. वेदमनूच्याचार्योऽन्तेवासिनमनुशास्ति। सत्यं वद। धर्मं चर। तै. उ. I. 11. 1.

10. तस्मात्सत्यं वदन्तमाहुर्धर्मं वदतीति धर्मं वा वदन्तं सत्यं वदतीत्येतद्ध्येयैतदुभयं भवति। बृह. उ. I. 4. 14.; तदेवानि जपेदसतो मा सद्गमय तमसो मा ज्योतिर्गमय मृत्योर्मांस-सुतं गमयेति। बृह. उ. I. 3. 28.

11. तस्मादेतन्नयं शिक्षेद् दमं दानं दयामिति। बृह. उ. V. 2. 3.

12. नाविरतो दुश्चरितान्नाशान्वो नासमाहितः। नाशान्तमानसो वापि प्रज्ञानेनैवमाप्नु-यात्॥ कठोप. I. 2. 23; vide also I. 3.7 and मैत्री उप. III. 5 for a list of qualities of darkness which the student of a high and sublime philosophy has to avoid.

conduct, peace of mind and concentration as essential for the seeker after the Self. The Udyogaparva 43.20ff. speaks of the twelve *vratas* (vows or rules of conduct) for brāhmaṇas and verses 22-25 describe at great length the characteristics of one who is *dānta* (self-controlled). Śānti 160 contains an eulogy of *dama* (self-control). Śānti 162.7 describes how *satya* has 13 aspects and verse 21 says that non-injury to all beings in thought, word and deed, good will and charity are the eternal dharma of the good.¹³ The Gautama-dharmasūtra (VIII. 24-26) holds that *dayā* (compassion or love for all beings), *kṣānti* (forebearance), *anasūyā* (freedom from envy), *śauca* (purity of body, speech and thought), *anāyāsa* (absence of painful efforts or ambitions), *maṅgala* (doing what is commended), *akārpaṇya* (not demeaning oneself before others), *asprīhā* (not hankering after sensual pleasures or the possessions of others)¹⁴ are the qualities of the soul and remarks that the person who has these eight qualities realizes non-difference from Brahma and reaches the world of Brahma, though he may not have all the other forty *saṃskāras*, while he who has all the forty *saṃskāras* but is not possessed of these eight qualities does not reach the world of Brahma.¹⁵ Vasiṣṭha (X. 30) says that avoiding back-biting, jealousy, pride, egoism, unbelief, crookedness, self-praise, abuse of others, deceit, covetousness, delusion, anger and envy is the dharma of all āśramas and further (XXX. 1) he delivers a fine exhortation 'practise dharma (righteousness) and not adharma; speak the truth and not untruth; look far ahead, not

13. अद्भोहः सर्वभूतेषु कर्मणा मनसा गिरा । अद्यग्रहश्च दानं च सतां धर्मः सनातनः ॥ शास्त्रिपर्व 162. 21.

14. अथाष्टावात्मगुणाः । दया सर्वभूतेषु क्षान्तिरनसूया शौचमनायासो मङ्गलमकार्पण्यमस्प्रीहेति । गो. घ. सू. VIII. 23-24. Haradatta quotes eight verses which explain these eight qualities. Atri (verses 34-41) also defines these eight qualities similarly but in different words. Aparārka (pp. 164-165), Smṛticandrikā (I. p. 13), Hemādri (Vrata p. 8) and Parāśaramādhyāya I. part 1 p. 84 quote from Brhaspati eight verses defining these eight qualities, which closely resemble Atri's. Vide Matsya 52.8-10 for these eight qualities and Vāyu 59.40-49, Mārkaṇḍeya 61.66 for saying that *dayā* (love for beings) is at the top of the eight ātmagūṇas and 28.31-32 for a slightly different enumeration of the eight. Viṣṇupurāṇa (III. 8.35-37) says that these eight mentioned by Gautama (तितिक्षा being substituted for क्षान्ति) and three more namely नाभिमानिता, सत्य, and प्रियवादिता are common to all varṇas. Vide वसिष्ठ VI. 3 आचारहीनं न पुनस्ति वेदाः.

15. Smṛticandrikā (I. p. 13) quotes verses of Śaṅkha to the same effect.

near; look at what is highest, not at what is not highest'. Āpastamba Dh. S. (I. 8. 23. 3-6) calls upon all āśramas to eradicate faults that tend to destruction and to cultivate the opposite virtues (and gives long lists of both). This shows that in the scale of values mere performance of sacrifices and purificatory and other religious ceremonies ranked according to Gautama and other writers very low and the highest value attached to the moral qualities of the soul. There is no elaborate discussion of the questions as to why a man should tell the truth or abstain from *himsā* (injury to sentient beings) and cultivate other high moral qualities. But it should not be supposed that no indications whatever are given of the reasons why this should be done. Two principles emerge if we closely examine the texts. In the midst of countless rules of outward conduct there is always insistence on the necessity to satisfy the inner man (*āntara-puruṣa*) or conscience. Manu IV. 161 says 'assiduously do that which will give satisfaction to the *antarātman*' (inner self); IV. 239 says 'No parents, nor wife nor sons will be a man's friends in the next world; but only righteousness.' 'Gods and the inner man mark the sinful acts' Vanaparva 207-54 and Manu VIII. 85, 91-92. Vide also Ādi-parva 74. 28-29, Manu VIII. 86, Anuśāsana 2. 73-74. The reason given for cultivating such virtues as *dayā*, *ahimsā* is based upon the philosophical doctrine of the one Self being immanent in every individual as said in the words '*tat tvam-asi*'. This is the highest point reached in Indian metaphysics and combines morality and metaphysics. That doctrine requires us to regard the goodness or badness of one's actions from the standpoint of other individuals who will be affected by such actions. Dakṣa (III. 22) declares ¹⁶ 'one who desires happiness should look upon another just as he looks upon himself. Happiness and misery affect one's self and others in the same way'. Devala says that the quintessence of dharma is that one should not do to others what would be disliked by one's self. ¹⁷ There-

16. यथैवात्मा परस्तद्वद्द्रव्यः सुखमिच्छता । सुखदुःखानि तुल्यानि यथात्मनि तथा परे ॥ दृक् III. 22.

17. श्रूयतां धर्मसर्वस्वं श्रुत्वा चैवावधार्यताम् । आत्मनः प्रतिकूलानि परेषां न समाचरेत् ॥ देवल quoted in कृत्यरत्नाकर p. 17. Compare आपस्तम्बस्मृति X. 12 'आत्मवत्सर्वभूतानि यः पश्यति स पश्यति ॥'; अनुशासनपर्व 113. 8-9 न तत्परस्य संदृष्ट्यात् प्रतिकूलं यदात्मनः । एष संक्षेपतो धर्मः कामादन्यः प्रवर्तते ॥ प्रत्याख्यानं च दानं च सुखदुःखे मित्येव । आत्मौपम्येन पुरुषः प्रमाणमधिगच्छति ॥ शान्ति 260. 20 and 25 यदन्यैर्विहितं नेच्छेदात्मनः कर्म पुरुषः । न तत्परेषु कुर्वीत जानन्नप्रियमात्मनः ॥ सर्वं प्रियारुपुणवत् धर्मं प्राहर्मनीयिणः ।

fore our texts lay down two seats of authority in morals viz., the revealed truth (śruti) that 'All this is brahma' and the inner light of conscience. Another reason for cultivating high moral qualities is found in the doctrine of the goals or ends of human existence (*puruṣārtha*). From very ancient times they are said to be four, dharma (right conduct), artha (economic interests), kāma (satisfaction of sexual, emotional and artistic life), mokṣa (liberation of the spirit). The last is said to be the supreme end and to be attained only by the few and the vast majority can only place it as an ideal to be attained in the most distant future. As regards the other three, there is a gradation of values. *Kāma* is the lowest of all and only fools regard it as the only end.¹⁸ The Mahābhārata says: 'A wise man tries to secure all three, but if all three cannot be attained, he secures dharma and artha or only dharma if he has a choice of only one from among the three. A man of middling discipline prefers artha to the other two; dharma is the source of both artha and kāma.' The dharmaśāstra writers did not condemn kāma altogether, they recognise that kāma has a place as a motive urging men to be active but they assigned it a low place. They recognised that a man shares with lower beings the impulses and emotions of sex, but that the satisfaction of these impulses is of lower values than the moral and spiritual ends proper for a developed human personality and therefore insist that it should be subordinated to *artha* and *dharma*. Gautama (IX. 46-47) says 'one should not allow the morning, midday and evening to remain fruitless so far as dharma, artha and kāma are concerned. But among these three one should attach most importance to dharma.' Yāj. I. 115 says practically the same thing. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 8. 20. 22-23) declares that 'a man should enjoy all such pleasures as are not opposed to

18. त्रिवर्गयुक्तः प्राज्ञानामारम्भो भरतर्षभ । धर्मार्थावल्लुरुध्यन्ते त्रिवर्गासंभवे नराः ॥ पृथक्स्वविनिविष्टानां धर्मं धीरोल्लुरुध्यते । मध्यमोर्थं कलिं बालः काममेवाल्लुरुध्यते ॥...कामार्थो लिप्समानस्तु धर्ममेवादितश्चरेत् । नहि धर्मादपैत्यर्थः कानो वापि कदाचन । उपायं धर्ममेवाहुस्त्रिवर्गस्य विज्ञापते । उद्योगपर्वे । 124. 34-38; vide शान्तिपर्व 167.8-9 for the statement that *dharma* is the best, *artha* is middling and *kāma* is the lowest and that a man should so act that dharma would be the principal goal of his life and that he should so deal with others as he would deal with himself 'तस्माद्धर्मप्रधानेन भवितव्यं यतात्मना । तथा च सर्वभूतेषु वर्तितव्यं यथात्मनि ॥' The महाभारत winds up with the words ऊर्ध्वबाहुर्विरोन्येष न च कश्चिच्छृणोति माम् । धर्मद्वयश्च कामश्च स किमर्थं न सेव्यते ॥ स्वर्गारोहः 5.62; vide also शल्य 60.22, द्रोण 151.37.

dharma. In this way one secures both worlds'.¹⁹ In the Bhagavadgītā (VII. 11) Kṛṣṇa identifies himself with *kāma* that is not opposed to dharma. Kauṭilya says²⁰ 'one may enjoy *kāma* provided there is no conflict with dharma and artha, one should not lead a life of no pleasures' and then true to his role of a writer on arthaśāstra, he proclaims that his own opinion is that *artha* is the principal of the three, as *dharma* and *kāma* both spring from *artha*.²¹ Manu (II. 224)²¹ after setting out several views about which of the three is principal states it as his own opinion that one should strive for all the three, but adds that if *artha* or *kāma* is in conflict with *dharma* one should give up *artha* or *kāma* as the case may be. Viṣṇu Dh. S. (71. 84) and Bhāgavata I. 2. 9 say the same. The Kāmasūtra²² of Vātsyāyana defines the three and says that out of dharma, artha and *kāma* each preceding one is superior to each following one and that to the king artha should be the highest goal. This teaching shows that there are proximate ends or motives and ultimate ends or motives, that the ultimate ends are really the most valuable and that the whole teaching of dharmaśāstra points to this that all higher life demands discipline both of body and mind and requires the subjection of lower aims to aims of higher value. Manu II. 4 (like Aristotle in the first sentence of his Politics) says that the end of all activity is some presumed good. Manu further says (V. 56) that the natural proclivity of all beings is to hanker after the satisfaction of the common and lower desires of hunger, thirst and sexual gratification and therefore no stress is to be placed on them but on the cessation or curbing of these. The Upaniṣads²³ recognise the

19. भोक्ता च धर्माविरुद्धान् भोगान् । एवमुभौ लोकावभिजयति । आप. घ. II. 8. 20. 22-23.

20. अर्थशास्त्र I. 7 'धर्मार्थाविरोधेन कामं सेवेत । न निःसुखः स्यात् । अर्थ एव प्रधान इति कौटिल्यः । अर्थमूलौ हि धर्मकामाविति ।'

21. धर्मार्थावुच्यते श्रेयः कामार्थौ धर्म एव च । अर्थ एवेह वा श्रेयस्त्रिवर्ग इति तु स्थितिः ॥ मनु II. 224; परित्यजेदर्थकामौ यौ स्यातां धर्मवर्जितौ । मनु IV. 176; compare विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 71.84 'धर्मविरुद्धौ चार्थकामौ (परिहरेत्)'; अनुशासन 111.18-19 'धर्मश्चार्थश्च कामश्च त्रितयं जीविते फलम् । एतन्नयमवाप्तव्यमधर्मपरिवर्जितम्' ॥; विष्णुपुराण III. 11. 7 परित्यजेदर्थकामौ धर्मपीडाकरो नृप । धर्ममप्यसुखोदकीं लोकविद्विदमेव च ॥

22. अलौकिकत्वादृष्टार्थत्वात् अपवृत्तानां यज्ञादीनां शास्त्रात्पर्वतेन लौकिकत्वाद् दृष्टार्थत्वाच्च प्रवृत्तेभ्यश्च मांसभक्षणादिभ्यः शास्त्रादेव निवारणं धर्मः । ... विद्याधुमिहिरण्यपशु-धान्यभाण्डोपस्कर-मित्रादीनामर्जनमर्जितस्य विवर्धनमर्थः । ... श्रोत्रत्वक्चक्षुर्जिह्वाघ्राणानामात्मसंयुक्तेन मनसाधिष्ठितानां स्वेषु स्वेषु विषयेष्वालोक्यतः प्रवृत्तिः कामः । तेषां समवाये पूर्वः पूर्वं गरीयान् । अर्थश्च राज्ञः । कामसूत्र I. 2.7-15.

23. स्वमेव वृणीष्व यं त्वं मनुष्याय हिततमं मन्यस इति । कौषीतकि ब्रा. उ. III. 1.

distinction between what is beneficial (*hita*) and what is most beneficial (*hitatama*). Śāntiparva (288. 20 and 330. 13) declares that what conduces to the greatest good of beings is 'satya.'

The Mitākṣarā on Yāj. I. 1. remarks that *ahiṃsā* and other qualities are the dharma common to all including even cāṇḍālas. The qualities are variously enumerated and emphasis is laid upon different lists in different works. Śaṅkhaśmṛti (I. 5) says that forbearance, truthfulness, self-restraint and purity are common to all varṇas. The Mahābhārata says that three are the best qualities among all beings viz., absence of enmity, truthfulness and freedom from anger²⁴ and in another place says that the best *vrata* (vow) for a man is threefold viz., he should feel no enmity (to others), should give and should speak the truth. Vasiṣṭha (IV. 4) says²⁵ that truthfulness, freedom from anger, generosity, *ahiṃsā* (non-injury) and procreation of offspring are (the common dharma) of all (varṇas). Gautama (X. 52) says that even the Śūdra has to submit himself to the dharma of truthfulness, freedom from anger and purity (of body and mind). Manu says that *ahiṃsā*, truthfulness, no wrongful taking of another's possessions, purity and restraint of senses are in brief the common dharmas of all varṇas.²⁶ Manu (IV. 175) calls upon all to take delight in truth, in dharma, in conduct worthy of an ārya and in purity. In the 3rd century B. C. the remarkable emperor Aśoka inscribed on stone in all parts of his empire the following list of virtues: compassion, liberality, truth, purity gentleness, peace, joyousness, saintliness, self-control; which bear a close resemblance to Gautama's list and even to a later list of St. Paul (vide Pillar Edicts II and VII in E. I. vol. II p. 249 and p. 272). Yāj. (I. 122) mentions nine qualities as the means of securing dharma for all (from the brāhmaṇa to the cāṇḍāla²⁷). The Mahābhārata says that freedom from anger, truthfulness, sharing one's wealth

24. एतद्धि त्रितयं श्रेष्ठं सर्वभूतेषु भारत । निर्वैरता महाराज सत्यमक्रोध एव च ॥ आश्रमवासिपर्व 28.9; त्रीण्येव तु पदान्याहुः पुरुषस्योत्तमं व्रतम् । न द्वुद्धोच्चैव दद्याच्च सत्यं चैव परं वदेत् ॥ अशुशासन 120.10.

25. सर्वेषां सत्यमक्रोधो दानमहिंसा प्रजननं च । वसिष्ठ IV. 4; vide वसिष्ठ X. 30 for 13 qualities prescribed for all āśramas.

26. अहिंसा सत्यमस्तेयं शौचमिन्द्रियनिग्रहः । एतं सामासिकं धर्मं चातुर्वर्ण्येऽब्रवीन्मनुः ॥ मनु X. 63; vide मनु VI. 62 for ten guṇas prescribed for all āśramas.

27. अहिंसा.....न्द्रियसंयमः । दमः क्षमार्जवं दानं सर्वेषां धर्मसाधनम् ॥ या. I. 122; vide या. III. 66.

with others, forbearance, procreation (of children) from one's wife (alone), purity, absence of enmity, straight-forwardness, maintaining persons dependent on one-self—these nine are the duties of all varṇas.²⁸ The Vāmanapurāṇa says that tenfold dharma is common to all and names these ten as *ahiṃsā, satya, asteya, dāna*, forbearance, restraint, quiescence, not demeaning oneself, purity, tapas.²⁹ Hemādri (vratakhaṇḍa pp. 7-8) quotes several passages from the Brahma, Brahmaparivarta and Viṣṇu-dharmottara for several sādharma dharma (virtues common to all varṇas and āśramas). The Viṣṇudharmasūtra enumerates fourteen qualities as sāmānya-dharma.³⁰

The foregoing discussion establishes that all dharmaśāstra writers attached the highest importance to moral qualities and enjoined them upon all with all the emphasis they could command; but as their main purpose was a practical one, viz., to guide people to right acts in everyday life, they dealt more elaborately with the acts, rites and ceremonies that each person had to do with reference to his station in society. They are therefore found principally concerning themselves with varṇāśrama dharma and not with sādharma dharma (i. e. duties common to all alike).

Āryāvarta — One important question that is very much canvassed in works on dharmaśāstra is about the country or territory which should be called *āryāvarta* or which was a fit habitation for those who called themselves the followers of the Vedic religion. Therefore a few words on this subject would be quite relevant. The Rgveda shows that the centre of Āryan culture in the times of the Rgveda was the land of the seven

28. अक्रोधः सत्यवचनं संविभागः क्षमा तथा । प्रजनः स्वेष्टे दारेषु शौचमद्रोह एव च ।
आर्जवं भृत्यभरणं नवैते सार्ववर्णिकाः ॥ शान्ति. 60. 7-8.

29. अहिंसा सत्यमस्तेयं दानं क्षान्तिर्व्रमः शमः । अकार्पण्यं च शौचं च तपश्च
रजनीचर । दशाङ्गो राक्षसश्रेष्ठ धर्मोऽसौ सार्ववर्णिकः ॥ वामनपुराण 14. 1-2 ; ब्रह्मपुराण
114. 16-18 prescribes the following as common to all varṇas and āśramas.
' दया समस्तभूतेषु तितिक्षा नाभिमानिता । सत्यं शौचमनायासो मङ्गलं प्रियवादिता । मैत्री
चैवास्पृहा तद्वदकार्पण्यं द्विजोत्तमाः । अनसूया च सामान्या वर्णानां कथिता गुणाः ॥
आश्रमाणां च सर्वेषामेते सामान्यलक्षणाः । '

30. क्षमा सत्यं व्रमः शौचं दानमिन्द्रियसंयमः । अहिंसा ह्यशुश्रूषा तीर्थाङ्गसरणं दया ।
आर्जवं लोभदुःखत्वं देवनाङ्गणपूजनम् । अनन्यसूया च तथा धर्मः सामान्य उच्यते ॥ विष्णु-
धर्मसूत्र II. 16-17 ; compare आप. ध. सू. I. 8. 23.6 for a long list of qualities
prescribed for all āśramas and शान्तिपर्व 297. 24-25 for 13 साधारणधर्मः
' आनुशंस्यमहिंसा च प्रसादः (प्रसादः ?) संविभागिता । श्राद्धकर्मातिथेयं च सत्यमक्रोध एव
च ॥ स्वेष्टे दारेषु संतोषः शौचं नित्यानसूयता । आत्मज्ञानं तितिक्षा च धर्माः साधारणा नृप ॥

rivers, viz. North-west India and Punjab. We find that the rivers from Kubhā (the Kabul river, in Rg. V. 53. 9; x. 76. 6), Krumu (the modern Kurram, Rg. V. 53. 9, X. 75. 6), Suvāstu (modern Swat, in Rg. VIII. 19. 37), the seven Sindhus (Rg. II. 12. 12, IV. 23. 1, VIII. 24. 27, X. 43. 3) up to the Yamunā (Rg. V. 52. 17, X. 75. 5), the Ganges (Rg. VI. 45. 31, X. 75. 5) and Sarayu (probably in modern Oudh, in Rg. IV. 30. 18 and V. 53. 9) figure in the Rgveda. Among the rivers of the Punjab the following are individually mentioned:—Sindhu (Rg. II. 15. 6 'he made the Sindhu flow northwards', Rg. V. 53. 9, Rg. IV. 30. 12, Rg. VIII. 20. 25 where reference is made to the medicine in the Sindhu, in the Asikni, in the seas and on mountains), Asikni (Rg. VIII. 20. 25, X. 75. 5), Paruṣṇī (Rg. IV. 22. 2, V. 52. 9), Vipāś and Śutudri (Rg. III. 33. 1 where their confluence is spoken of), Vipāś alone in Rg. IV. 30. 12, Śutudri alone in Rg. X. 75. 5, Drṣadvatī, Āpayā and Sarasvatī (as very holy in Rg. III. 23. 4), Sarasvatī alone (Rg. VII. 95, the whole hymn is addressed to it of which verse 2 says it springs from the mountains; Rg. VI. 61 is another hymn addressed to it, v. 10 of which says it has seven sisters), Gomatī (Rg. VIII. 24. 30, X. 75. 6), Vitastā (Rg. X. 75. 5). Gradually the Āryans spread southwards and eastwards. The Kāṭhaka S. X. 6 speaks of Kuru-Pañcālas. In the Brāhmaṇas the centre of Āryan activities and culture shifted to the countries of the Kurus and Pañcālas and Kosala-Videhas. For example, the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa remarks that in the lands of Kurupañcālas speech is at its best.³¹ In Śat. Br. XI. 4. 1. 1 Uddālaka Āruṇi is called a Kuru-Pañcāla brāhmaṇa and contrasted with brāhmaṇas of the north (S. B. E. vol. 44 p. 51). Similarly the Kauṣītaki-br. (VII. 6) remarks³² that those who want to learn (best) speech go northwards or wait upon him who comes from that direction. In the Śatapatha we have the story of Videgha Māthava who went beyond the country of Kosala-Videha, crossed the river Sadānirā that came down from the Himalaya, and settled to the east of that river, where the country was a cultivated and civilized one in the times of that work, while in former ages it had been uncultivated (I. 4. 1. 4-17, S. B. E. vol. 12 pp. 105-106;). Even in the Buddhist

31. तस्माद्ब्रह्मोत्तराहि वाग्ब्रह्मदति कुरुपञ्चालत्रा । इतपथ ब्रा. III. 2. 3. 15. Vide S. B. E. vol. 12 p. XLII n. 1 and vol. 26 p. 50 for various interpretations.

32. तस्माद्ब्रह्मोत्तराहि वाग्ब्रह्मदति कुरुपञ्चालत्रा । इतपथ ब्रा. VII. 6.

Jātakas we see that being an 'udicca brāhmaṇo' was a source of great pride (vide Fick's work p. 40). The Tai. Br. speaks of the *vedi* of the gods as being in Kuru-kṣetra.³³ Even in the R̥gveda itself the country through which the rivers Dṛṣadvatī, Āpayā and Sarasvatī flowed is spoken of as the best spot (vide III. 23. 4). The Tai. Br. says that the Kurupañcālas go east in the winter and westwards in the last month of summer. In the times of the Upaniṣads also the Kurupañcāla country appears to have occupied a pre-eminent place. The Br. Up. (III. 1. 1.) says that when Janaka, king of Videha, performed a sacrifice the brāhmaṇas of Kurupañcāla flocked there in large numbers. Vide also Br. Up. III. 9. 19. The Br. Up. VI. 2. 1 and Chāndogya V. 3. 1 say that Śvetaketu went to the assembly of the Pañcālas. Kauṣṭaki Br. Up. (IV. 1.) names the countries of Uśinara, Matsya, Kurupañcāla and Kāśivideha as centres of intellectual activity and in II. 13 refers to two mountains one in the North and the other in the South (meaning probably Himavat and Vindhya). According to the Nirukta (II. 2), the country of Kamboja was outside the limits of the country of Āryas, though the language spoken there seems to have been the same. The Mahābhāṣya lends support to this and adds that Surāṣṭra was not an Ārya country (vol. 1, p. 9). In the times of the Dharmasūtras great divergence of opinion prevailed on the question of the location of Āryāvarta. The Vasiṣṭha-dharma³⁴-sūtra says; ' Āryāvarta is to the east of the disappearance (of Sarasvatī in the desert), to the west of Kālakavana, to the north of the mountains Pāriyātra and Vindhya and to the south of the Himālaya '. It then refers to two more views held by other authors viz., ' Āryāvarta is in the region between the Ganges and the Jumna ' and ' where the black antelope roams about there is spiritual pre-eminence '. The Baud. D. S. (I. 1.27) gives the same limits of Āryāvarta as Vasiṣṭha,

33. देवा वै सत्रमासत । तेषां कुरुक्षेत्रे वेदिरासीत् । तै. ब्रा. V. 1. 1; नि त्वा द्ये वर आ पृथिव्या इत्याचार्यदे सुदिनत्वे अन्नाय् । दृषद्वत्यां मातृष आपयायां सरस्वत्यां रेवद्वे द्विदीहि ॥ ब्र. III. 23. 4; for Kurukṣetra as a very ancient place vide Śatapatha IV. 1. 5. 13 and Ait. Br. (chap. 35. kh. 4); आग्नेयमष्टाकपालं निर्वपति । तस्मान्छिन्निरे कुरुपञ्चालाः प्राञ्चो यन्ति । तस्माज्जघन्ये नैदावे प्रत्यञ्चः कुरुपञ्चाला यन्ति । तै. ब्रा. I. 8. 5.

34. आयावर्तः प्रागादर्शावत्यक् कालकवनान्द्रुक्पारियात्राद्वक्षिणेन हिमवतः । उत्तरेण च विन्ध्यस्य । ... गङ्गायमुनयोरन्तरेष्वेके । यावद्वा कृष्णयुगो विचरति तावद्ब्रह्मवर्षसमित्यन्ये । वसिष्ठधर्मसूत्र I. 8-9 and 12-13.

substituting the word 'vinaśana' for 'ādarsa'.³⁵ Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya defines Āryāvarta several times in the same terms as Vasīṣṭha does.³⁶ The Dharmaśūtra of Śaṅkha-Likhita gives somewhat similar limits by remarking 'spotless spiritual pre-eminence is to be found (in the country) to the east of the countries of Sindhu and Sauvira, to the west of the city of Kāmpīli, to the south of Himālaya and to the north of Pāriyātra'.³⁷ The extant Manusmṛti (II. 22) makes Āryāvarta coterminous with the whole of India north of the Vindhya by saying that the territory between the Himālaya and the Vindhya and extending up to the eastern and western oceans is known by the wise as Āryāvarta. The second view (viz. Āryāvarta is the region between the Ganges and the Jumna) occurs in Baud. Dh. S. (I. 1.28). In the Tai. Ār. II.20 special honour is shown to those who dwell between the Gaṅgā and the Yamunā. The third view (viz. Āryāvarta is the country where the black antelope roams about naturally) is the one given in most smṛtis. Both Vasīṣṭha (I. 14-15) and Baud. Dh. S. (I. 1. 29-30) quote an ancient *gāthā* from the Nidāna work of the Bhāllavins³⁸ to the effect that wherever the black antelope roams about in the country lying between the Sindhu in the west and the rising mountain in the east, there is spiritual pre-eminence. So this view is a very ancient one and probably

35. प्राग्विनशनात् प्रत्यक्ष कालकचनाद् दक्षिणेन हिमवन्तस्तदुपरि यात्रमेव दार्यावर्तं तस्मिन् आचारः स प्रमाणम् । बौ. ध. सू. I. 1.27. Even so early as the ताण्ड्यमहा-
ब्राह्मण we have the words सरस्वत्या विनशने दीक्षन्ते (24.17.1). This shows that the Sarasvatī had disappeared by the time of the ताण्ड्य. According to the Vanaparva 82. 111 Vinaśana is the tīrtha where the Sarasvatī disappeared and Vanaparva (130. 3-5) says that the Sarasvatī disappeared at the entrance of Niṣādarāṣṭra through fear of pollution from Niṣādas and Śalyaparva (37. 1-2) tells us that Vinaśana is the sacred place where the Sarasvatī disappeared through hatred for Śūdras and Ābhīras.

36. कः पुनरार्यावर्तः । प्रागादर्शात् प्रत्यक्षकालकचनाद् दक्षिणेन हिमवन्तस्तत्तरेण पारियात्रम् । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 475 (on Pāṇ. II. 4.10), vol. III. p. 174 (on Pāṇ. VI. 3.109)

37. प्राक्सिन्धुसौवीरात् दक्षिणेन हिमवतः पश्चात्काम्पिल्या उदक्ष पारियात्रादनवर्षं ब्रह्मवर्चसम् । quoted in परिभाषाप्रकाश (वीरसिन्धोदय p. 57).

38. अथापि ब्राह्मचिनो निदाने गाथासुदाहरन्ति । पश्चात्सिन्धुविधारणी सूर्यस्योदयनं पुरः । यावत्कृष्णोभिधावति तावद् ब्रह्मवर्चसम् । इति । वसिष्ठ I. 14-15. Viśvarūpa reads 'विहरणी' and explains it as 'where the sun sets', while विधारणी may mean 'dividing line, boundary'. परिभाषाप्रकाश p. 57 reads विहरणी and explains वितरणी जनकपर्वतसमीपे मालवदेशे परछुरामेण धनुष्कोट्या कुण्डं भित्त्वा निर्मितेति जनमसिद्धा ।

arose from some mythological account as is indicated by the commentary of Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I.2 which quotes a prose passage of the Śvetāśvataras 'Sacrifice became a black antelope and wandered over the earth; *dharma* followed it in its wanderings'. This view of the limits of Āryāvarta is maintained by Śaṅkha (as quoted by Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I.2), Viṣṇudharma-sūtra 84.4, Manu II. 23, Yāj. I. 2, Saṁvarta 4, Laghu-Hārta (I. p. 178), Veda-Vyāsa (I. 3), Bṛhat-Parāśara (p. 56) and several other smṛtis. The Manusmṛti (II. 17-24) defines Brahmāvarta as the country between the holy rivers Sarasvatī and Dr̥ṣadvatī,³⁹ says that the traditional mode of conduct observed in that country is called *sadācāra*, that the countries of Kurukṣetra, Matsya, Pañcāla and Śūrasena are styled Brahmarshideśa and are slightly less (in holiness) than Brahmāvarta, that Madhyadeśa is between the Himālaya and the Vindhya and to the east of Vinasāna and to the west of Prayāga, that Āryāvarta is the country between the Himālaya and Vindhya up to the eastern and western oceans, that that territory where the black antelope roams about naturally is the country fit for sacrifices and the countries beyond constitute *mlecchadeśa*, that men of the three higher varṇas should endeavour to live in these countries (viz. Brahmāvarta, Brahmarshideśa, Madhyadeśa, Āryāvarta &c.) while a śūdra, when distressed for his livelihood, may stay in any country whatever. The Viṣṇudharmasūtra (84. 4) says that the country where the system of the four varṇas is not established is to be known as Mleccha country and Āryāvarta is beyond that. This is explained by Aparārka (p. 5) as follows: one who desires to practise Vedic religion should live in one of the four countries viz. Brahmāvarta and others; if that is not possible, then in a country where there is establishment of the four varṇas and the black antelope roams about naturally; if both these cannot be had, then one should dwell in a country where at least one of the two (*cāturvarṇya* and black antelope) is found. The above discussion shows that in very ancient times the country south of the Vindhya was looked upon as beyond the pale of Aryan culture. Baud. Dh. S. (I. 1. 31) says that the countries of Avantī, Aṅga, Magadha, Surāṣṭra, Dakṣiṇāpatha, Upāvr̥t, Sindhu

39. Vide Tāṇḍya Br. 25. 10. 13-14 for Dr̥ṣadvatī falling into the Sarasvatī and 25. 10. 16 for the disappearance of the latter and Ait. Br. (chap. 38 kh. 3) for Kuru-Pañcāla, Vāsā and Uśīnara as included in the centre of India.

and Sauvira are of mixed origin (i. e. not of pure Āryan ancestry), that a person who goes to Āraṭṭaka, Kāraskara, Puṇḍra, Sauvira, Aṅga, Vaṅga, Kāliṅga and Prānūna (?) has to offer a solemn sacrifice like the Sarvaṣṭha and that for going to Kāliṅga the prāyaścitta is an offering to Vaiśvānara Agni. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 292 quotes a verse of Devala to the effect that if a man goes to Sindhu, Sauvira, Saurāṣṭra, the border lands (or Mleccha countries), Aṅga, Vaṅga, Kāliṅga and Andhra he has to perform the Upanayana saṁskāra over again.⁴⁰ The Mit. adds a remark that this is so only if the man goes to these countries for some purpose other than pilgrimage. Gradually however as Āryan culture spread over the whole of what is now called India the view of the sages about the countries pre-eminently Āryan had to be given up. Medhātithi on Manu II. 22 explains that Āryāvarta is so called 'because Āryas again and again spring up there and because the Mlecchas even if they overrun it from time to time do not abide there for long' and then makes the following very sensible observation (on II. 23) 'if a kṣatriya king of excellent conduct were to conquer the Mlecchas, establish the system of four varṇas (in the Mleccha country) and assign to Mlecchas a position similar to that of cāṇḍālas in Āryāvarta, even that (Mleccha) country would be fit for the performance of sacrifices, since the earth is not by itself impure, but becomes impure through contact (of impure persons or things).'⁴¹ As a result of the spread of Āryan culture eastwards and southwards and the frequent invasions of non-Āryan tribes on the north-west, the countries on the rivers of the Punjab came to be looked upon in the whirligig of time as unworthy of the Āryas to live in. Karpaparva 43. 5-8 abuses those who live on the Sindhu and the five rivers of the Punjab as impure and *dharmabāhya*.⁴²

40. सिन्धुसौवीरसौराष्ट्रास्तथा प्रत्यन्तवासिनः । अङ्गवङ्गकलिङ्गान्ध्रान् गत्वा संस्कार-
मर्हति । This is Devala v. 16 with slight variations in the 3rd *pāda*.
It is ascribed to Baudhāyana in the Smṛticandrikā I. p. 9.

41. आर्या वर्तन्ते तत्र पुनः पुनरुद्भवन्त्याक्रम्याक्रम्यापि न चिरं तत्र श्लेच्छाः स्थातारो
भवन्ति । मेधा० on मनु II. 22, यदि कश्चित्क्षत्रियादिजातीयो राजा साध्वाचरणो श्लेच्छा-
न्पराजयेत् चातुर्वर्ष्यं वासयेत्, श्लेच्छाश्चावर्तन्ते इव चाण्डालान् व्यवस्थापयेत् सोऽपि
स्याद्यज्ञियः, यतो भूमिर्न स्वतो दुष्टा संसर्गाद्धि सा दुष्यति । मेधा. on मनु II. 23.

42. पञ्चानां सिन्धुषष्ठानां नदीनां येऽन्तराश्रिताः । तान् धर्मबाह्यान्नुचीन् बाहीका-
नपि वर्जयेत् ॥ कर्णपर्व 43. 7; कर्ण० 44. 31-34 calls these countries Araṭṭas and
'naṣṭadharma'. Vide पञ्च नद्यो बहन्त्येता यत्र निःसृत्य पर्वतात् । आरह्ता नाम बाहीका
न तेष्वार्या इव हं वसेत् ॥ कारस्करान्माहिषकान् कालिङ्गान्केरलास्तथा । कर्कटिकान्वीरकांश्च
दुर्धर्माश्च विवर्जयेत् ॥ कर्णपर्व 44. 40 and 43.

Another word which is very often used, particularly in the Purāṇas, to denote the territory where the ancient Vedic religion prevails is Bharatavarṣa or Bhāratavarṣa. It occurs in the Hathigumpha Inscription of Khāravela (2nd century B. C.) as Bharadhavasa.⁴³ The Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa says that Bharatavarṣa has the ocean on the east, south and west and the Himālaya on the north.⁴⁴ The Viṣṇupurāṇa (II. 3.1) says the same and Matsya (114.10) and Vāyu define Bharatavarṣa as stretching from Cape Comorin to the source of the Ganges.⁴⁵ Śābara (not later than 5th century A. D.) in his bhāṣya on Jaimini (X. 1.35 and 42) shows that to him there was unity of language and culture from the Himālaya to Cape Comorin.⁴⁶ Paitṭhīnāsī as quoted in the Paribhāṣā-prakāśa (p. 58) says that dharma is fully developed (lit. four-legged) in the country from the Himālaya to Cape Comorin.⁴⁷ According to Mārkaṇḍeya (53.41), Vāyu (vol. I chap. 33.52) and other Purāṇas Bharatavarṣa is so called after Bharata, son of Ṛṣabha, descendant of Svāyambhuva Manu; while Vāyu (vol. II. chap. 37.130) appears to strike a different note by saying that Bharatavarṣa is so called after Bharata, the son of Duṣyanta and Śakuntalā. The Viṣṇupurāṇa says that after thousands of births a person secures life as a human being in Bharatavarṣa and this land is called *Karmabhūmi* (the land of religious actions) for those who want to secure heaven and final liberation.⁴⁸ The Vāyupurāṇa says almost the same and adds that in no land other than Bharatavarṣa is *karma* prescribed for mortals. It is somewhat amusing to find that

43. Vide E. I. vol. 20 p. 79.

44. दक्षिणापरतो ह्यस्य पूर्वेण च महोदधिः । हिमवानुत्तरेणास्य कार्मुकस्य यथा गुणः ॥ तदेतद्भारतं वर्षं । मार्कण्डेय 57.59.

45. उत्तरं यत्समुद्रस्य हिमाद्रेश्चैव दक्षिणम् । वर्षं तद्भारतं नाम भारती यत्र संततिः ॥ विष्णुपुराण II. 3. 1; वायु vol. I, 45. 75-76 उत्तरं यत्समुद्रस्य हिमवदक्षिणं च यत् । वर्षं यद्भारतं नाम यत्रेयं भारती प्रजा । ; मत्स्य 114. 10 आयतस्तु कुमारीतो गङ्गायाः प्रवहावधिः (प्रभवावधिः?); compare with the last वायुपुराण vol. 1, 45. 81 'आयतो ह्य कुमारिक्यादागङ्गाप्रभवान्च वै'.

46. 'प्रसिद्धश्च स्थाल्यां चरुशब्द आ हिमवत आ च कुमारीन्यः' on जैमिनि X. 1. 35 and 'ओदने हि चरुशब्दः प्रसिद्ध आ हिमवत आ च कुमारीन्यः' on जैमिनि X. 1.42.

47. पैठिनासीः । आ हिमवत आ च कुमारीः सिन्धुर्वैरणी नदी सूर्यस्योदयनं पुरः या-
वद्वा कुण्डमृगो विचरति तत्र धर्मश्चतुष्पादो भवतीति । परिभाषाप्रकाश p. 58.

48. कर्मभूमिरियं स्वर्गमपवर्गं च गच्छताम् । विष्णुपुराण II. 3. 2; vide Wilson's Viṣṇupurāṇa vol. II. pp. 105-106; ततः स्वर्गश्च मोक्षश्च मध्यश्च, त्तश्च गम्यते । न खल्वन्यत्र मर्त्यानां भूमौ कर्म विधीयते ॥ वायु 45. 77; विष्णुपुराण II. 3. 5.

many of the countries of India that in modern times pride themselves on being most orthodox are declared by the Āditya-purāṇa (as quoted in the Smṛticandrikā) to be countries unfit for habitation and to be such that a stay in them except for pilgrimage entailed loss of caste and prāyaścittas.⁴⁹ The Ādipurāṇa (Ādityapurāṇa?) as quoted in the Paribhāṣāprakāśa (p. 59) says 'no one, whether a dvija or not, born in Āryāvarta should cross the three rivers, Sindhu, Karmadā (i. e. Karmanāśā) or Karatoyā except on a pilgrimage' and that if he does so, he should perform the penance of cāndrāyana.

All smṛti writers and commentators generally restrict themselves to the duties of varṇas and āśramas as practised in Āryāvarta or Bharatavarṣa, though in very rare cases (as in Yāj. II. 192) they provide for the observance of the usages of even heretics.

49. काञ्चीकाश्यपसौराष्ट्रदेवराष्ट्रान्ध्रमत्स्यजाः । कावेरी कोङ्कणा ह्यणस्ते देशा निन्दिता
भृशम् ॥ पञ्चनद्यो... वसेत् ॥ (same verse as in n. 42)... सौराष्ट्रसिन्धुसौवीरमावन्त्यं दक्षि-
णापथम् । गत्वैतान् कामतो देशान् कलिङ्गांश्च पतेद्द्विजः ॥ स्मृतिच० I. p. 9 quoting
आदित्यपुराण; आदिपुराणे-आर्यावर्तसमुत्पन्नो द्विजो वा यदि वाऽद्विजः । कर्मदां सिन्धुपारं च
करतोयां न लङ्घयेत् । आर्यावर्तमतिक्रम्य विना तीर्थक्रियां द्विजः । आज्ञां चैव तथा पित्रोरैन्दवेन
विह्वल्यति ॥ परिभाषाप्रकाश p. 59.

CHAPTER II

VARNA

The number of works dealing with the origin and characteristics of the caste system in India is legion. Most of them, however, concern themselves with the detailed description of the bewildering variety of castes and subdivisions of castes in modern times and their present religious and social customs and usages. The origin of caste has given rise to great speculation and several schools of thought have arisen. Generally individual authors lay undue emphasis on one element or attach far too much importance to one point in tracing the origin of the caste system and its ramifications, such as race (Risley), tribe (Ibbetson), occupation (Nesfield). The study of the origin and development of caste in India is one of deep and absorbing interest to all students of sociology. A complete and critical examination of the several theories of caste advanced by distinguished authors and a detailed description of the hundreds of castes and subcastes now found in India is far beyond the scope of the present work. For those who want to make a thorough study of the most important works on caste a modest list is given in the footnote below.⁵⁰

50. J. N. Bhattacharya's 'Hindu castes and sects' (1896); E. A. H. Blunt's 'Caste system of Northern India' (1931); W. Crooke's 'Tribes and castes of N. W. Provinces and Oudh' 4 Vol. (1896); N. K. Dutt's 'Origin and growth of caste in India' (1931) and 'Aryanization of India' (1925); R. E. Enthoven's 'Tribes and castes of Bombay' 3 Vol. (1920); R. Fick's 'Social Organisation in North-east India in Buddha's time,' translation by Dr. S. K. Maitra 1920 (deals only with the Buddhist Jataka materials); Dr. Ghurye's 'Caste and race in India' (1932); Ibbetson's 'Punjab castes' (1881, reprint in 1916); S. V. Ketkar's 'History of caste in India' 2 Vol. (1909 and 1911); Kitt's 'Compendium of castes found in India' (1885); Nesfield's 'A brief review of the caste system of the North-west Provinces and Oudh' (1885); O'Malley's 'Indian caste customs' (1932) and 'India's social heritage' (1934); Hayavadan Rao's 'Indian Caste system' (1934); Risley's 'Tribes and castes of Bengal' 1891 (mostly anthropometric data) and 'People of India' 2nd ed. 1915; R. V. Russell's 'Tribes and castes of Central

The caste system has been highly eulogised and also most severely condemned by Western writers. Sidney Low in his 'Vision of India' (pp. 262-263, 2nd ed. of 1907) speaks of the beneficent aspect of the caste system in the following eloquent passage 'There is no doubt that it is the main cause of the fundamental stability and contentment by which Indian society has been braced up for centuries against the shocks of politics and the cataclysms of Nature. It provides every man with his place, his career, his occupation, his circle of friends. It makes him at the outset a member of a corporate body, it protects him through life from the canker of social jealousy and unfulfilled aspirations; it ensures him companionship and a sense of community with others in like case with himself. The caste organization is to the Hindu his club, his trade union, his benefit society, his philanthropic society. There are no work-houses in India and none are as yet needed.' Abbe Dubois, who wrote about 130 years ago after being in close touch with Hindus of all castes for 15 years as a missionary, remarks (in his work on the character, manners and customs of the people of India, translated into English and published in London in 1817) 'I consider the institution of castes among the Hindu nations as the happiest effort of their legislation; and I am well convinced that, if the people of India never sunk into a state of barbarism, and if, when almost all Europe was plunged in that dreary gulf, India kept up her head, preserved and extended the sciences, the arts and civilization, it is wholly to the distinction of castes that she is indebted for that high celebrity' (p. 14) and he devotes several pages to the justification of this remark. Maine in his 'Ancient

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Provinces' 4 volumes (1916); Emile Senart's 'Les caste dans l'Inde' (1896) translated by Sir E. Ross (1936); M. A. Sherring's 'Hindu Tribes and Castes' 3 volumes (1872-1881); G. Slater's 'Dravidian element in Hindu culture' (1914); Steele's 'Law and customs of Hindu castes' (1868); Thurston and Rangachari's 'Caste and Tribes of South India' 7 volumes (1909); John Wilson's 'Indian castes' 2 vol. (1877); 'Mysore Tribes and castes' by S. V. Nanjundayya and Rao Bahadur L. K. Ananthakrishna Iyer, vol. I-IV with several hundred illustrations. Besides these there are numerous papers published in Journals such as Weber's in 'Indische Studien' vol. X pp. 1-160 (very exhaustive as to Vedic material); Dr. Ghurye's on 'Ethnic theory of caste' in 'Man in India' vol. IV (1924) pp. 209-271.

Law' (new edition of 1930 p. 17) characterises it as 'the most disastrous and blighting of all human institutions.' Sherring in 'Hindu tribes and castes' vol. III p. 293 says 'it is the most baneful, hard-hearted and cruel social system that could possibly be invented for damning the human race'. On the other hand Meredith Townsend in 'Europe and Asia' (edition of 1901 p. 72) wrote 'I firmly believe caste to be a marvellous discovery, a form of socialism which through ages protected Hindu Society from anarchy and from the worst evils of industrial and competitive life—it is an automatic poor law to begin with and the strongest form known of Trades Union'. There are others,⁵¹ though their number is small, that believe

51. E. g. Sherring in his 'Hindu Tribes and castes' vol. III p. 274 says 'It has been said with some truth that caste promotes cleanliness and order and is in a certain sense a bond of union among all classes of the Hindu community. Yet surely these ends might have been attained in a simpler manner and by a less antagonistic process. *The invention of a project* so wonderfully elaborate and intricate—a project of bringing into absolute subjection two hundred millions of the human species by robbing them of their independence, the invention of a project like this, so prodigious and far-reaching was not needed to accomplish such useful and beneficent ends. That another and very different object was in view from the very first is abundantly manifest. This object was neither more nor less than to exalt the Brahman, to feed his pride and to minister to his self-will.' Equally sweeping condemnation can be and has been indulged in as regards feudalism and modern capitalism. Fick (p. 331) entirely scouts the idea that the theory of castes was invented by the priests. There are several fallacies lurking in the above quoted passage of Sherring. In the first place, there is nothing to show that the caste system was invented by any body of persons who could impose their will on a continent. The system simply grew up in the lapse of ages. The population of Hindus when Sherring wrote may have been near two hundred millions, but it could not have been more than a small fraction of that colossal number during the thousands of years that the system has flourished. Besides writers like Sherring pass over the great achievements of Indians under the caste system in Literature, religion and philosophy, in handicrafts and in the fine arts and unduly exaggerate the defects of the system that have become glaring only in the machine-made civilization of the 19th and 20th centuries. These critics ignore the great adaptability of the system, whereby it preserved Indian society from social anarchy during ages of foreign invasions and internecine wars. While severely condemning the brāhmaṇas the critics altogether forget that the vast and varied Sanskrit Literature owes its production and preservation mostly to the sacrifice of the brāhmaṇas for ages. Under the caste

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that the caste system was an invention, an artificial product, due to the machinations of crafty brāhmanas. Every great institution has its extremes of good or evil. This work will endeavour to steer clear of downright and hypercritical condemnation of the caste system due to relying on modern stand-points and conditions of society and unthinking adulation thereof. It will try to present and balance facts and though it cannot help passing judgments it will leave the reader free to judge for himself as far as possible. In the present work the discussion will be mostly confined to the evidence of Sanskrit literary monuments, ancient and medieval. An attempt will be made to trace the origin of caste from Vedic times, to exhibit theories of the Dharmaśāstrakāras, other smṛtikāras and commentators on the subject and to describe the peculiar ceremonies, privileges, duties and responsibilities of Hindu castes as gathered from these works in Sanskrit. To discuss the feasibility or desirability of totally destroying the caste system or the ways and means of attaining that end is deemed to be outside the legitimate limits of this volume. It may, however, be expressly stated as the author's opinion, in order to avoid misunderstandings or fruitless speculations about his personal views, that he does not think that the caste system was an artificial product due to the intrigues, greed and cunning of brāhmanas, nor does he hold that it is feasible to destroy the whole edifice of the caste system in the near future. In the cities we may find some people taking their food together but the real India is in the villages, where in spite of the loud denunciations of reformers for a hundred years, the restrictions on taking food and inter-caste marriages are almost as rigid as they once were. Our efforts must be directed to wide and rapid spread of literacy among the village people, the diffusion of the idea of one people and one nationality and gradual fusion of small subcastes into larger-similar units. We in India have no doubt reached a critical stage in our history when old ideals, institutions and

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system, no man was allowed to be useless to the commonwealth and his conduct was a question of honour with his group. When all work was turned out with the hands, the caste system tended to preserve and augment the skill of artisans. Moreover what social organization is to be substituted and how is not made clear by these critics. Most of these critics have the western social system based on wealth and the industrial revolution in view; but that system also is as evil as or perhaps worse than the modern caste system.

habits are being shattered by the impact of new ideas and by the onrush of world forces. We have to decide whether we shall make or be able to make a clean sweep of all old ideals and institutions as so much debris and rubbish or whether while keeping the old ideals and some of the old institutions as foundations we shall build up a new social order and create and foster new habits of thought and action. It is beyond the scope of the present work to write more on this point.

A sort of caste system based on birth and occupation did prevail in many countries in ancient times as in Persia, Rome and Japan. But in all these countries it hardly ever made any near approach in rigour and complexity to the caste system that we have in India and instead of ramifying into divisions and subdivisions, it dwindled and disappeared in the course of time. No unanimity seems possible as to the several causes and circumstances which led in India alone to the evolution of the stupendous structure of caste. Not only is it impossible to hold that the origin of the modern complexity of the caste system is to be traced back to one single cause, but it is difficult to accept that even all the origins that have been postulated by the several authors can adequately and satisfactorily explain the modern caste system.

In most of the works on the castes in India a few features are pointed out as the characteristics of the caste system and as common to all castes and sub-castes. They are: (1) heredity i. e. in theory a man is assigned to a particular caste by birth in that caste; (2) endogamy and exogamy i. e. restriction as to marrying in the same caste and not marrying certain relatives or other persons, though of the same caste; (3) restrictions as to food (i. e. what food and water may be taken or not taken and from whom); (4) occupation (i. e. members of most castes follow certain occupations and no others); (5) gradation of castes, some being at the top in the social scale and others being deemed to be so low that they are untouchable. Some authors⁵² like Senart add another characteristic, viz. the caste council with its chief having in meeting assembled among other matters the power to regulate the conduct of its members, to impose the penalties of fine or excommunication for lapses. It may be said at once that this last is a feature

52. Vide Senart's 'caste in India' tr. by Ross pp. 66-73 (1930). Fick pp. 36-37 holds that there were no caste councils and no caste chiefs.

that is not found among most of the brāhmaṇa and kṣatriya castes even in modern times and is not dealt with by dharmaśāstra works. Endogamy is now the most prominent characteristic of caste and so is the theory that it is by birth. The other three are more or less fluctuating from province to province and age to age. In this work the first five characteristics of the caste system set out above will be subjected to a close critical examination on the basis of the Vedic and dharmaśāstra material. We must also remember that the attributes of caste have not been the same throughout the ages. There is great difference between the popular conceptions of modern caste and the conceptions about it embodied in the ancient and medieval dharmaśāstra works. In the twentieth century caste in India is a matter of marriage and to a much lesser extent of food and drink. As to avocations any one can at present follow any profession without fear of loss of caste excepting a few believed to be very impure and very degrading ones (like those of sweepers, butchers, tanners &c.). It is also not possible even now for any one to be generally accepted as a priest, unless he is or claims to be a brāhmaṇa. The old barriers that separated one caste or subcaste from another have been greatly shaken by the influx of modern ideas and the exigencies of the times and one may hope that in a few decades more caste will remain as a purely social institution regulating marriages and to a lesser extent commensality (and not a religious one). Western scholars, in spite of their most commendable patience and industry, often present, through ignorance or lack of first-hand knowledge, the number of castes as larger than what it actually is. For example, Sherring (vol. II. Introduction pp. XXII-XLVI) gives an alphabetical list of brahmanical tribes and remarks (XLVII) 'Hundreds of these tribes, if, not at enmity with one another, cherish mutual distrust and antipathy to such a degree that they are socially separated from one another as far as it is possible for them to be—as much as brāhmaṇas are from the lowest outcastes—neither eating nor drinking together nor intermarrying'. The list he gives is most misleading. To take only a few examples, he enumerates Athavle, Achwal, Abhyankara, Apte, Agashe, Bhanu, Bivalkar, Badye, Bhide, Bhagvat, Bhuskute, Bhat, Bodas as separate tribes; but it is well-known to people in Western India that these are the surnames (not subcastes) of the Kōṅkanastha or Citpāvana brāhmaṇas, who not only interdine, but also inter-marry among themselves,

provided there is no bar on the ground of sameness of *gotra* and *pravara*.

The word *varṇa* means 'colour' or 'light' in most passages of the Rgveda (e. g. I. 73.7, II. 3.5, IX. 97.15, IX. 104.4, IX. 105.4, X. 124.7). But in some verses of the Rgveda⁵³ the word *varṇa* is associated with groups of people having a skin of a dark or fair colour. For example, we read in Rg. II. 12.4 '(Indra) who placed low the *dāsa* colour in a cave (or darkness)'; in Rg. I. 179.6 'the fierce sage (Agastya) cherished both *varṇas*'; in Rg. IX. 71.2 'like one (a fighter) who strikes the people he (Soma) who is powerful goes giving out frequent roars; he exposes the *Asura* colour'; in Rg. I. 130.8 'Indra helped in battles the *Ārya* sacrificer..... Indra punished for the sake of Manu (the *dāsas*) who do not observe the ordinances and subdued (or killed) the dark skin'; 'Indra having killed the *dasyus* protected the *ārya varṇa*' (Rg. III. 34.9); 'You (Indra) subdued for Rjīśvan, the son of Vidathin, Pipru and powerful Mrgaya; you mowed down fifty thousand dark (men), you shattered cities as old age does shatter good looks' Rg. IV. 16.13; 'Somas, which strike away the dark skin' Rg. IX. 41.1. In Rg. I. 158.5 a certain *dāsa* is called *Traitana* which name has a Persian ring about it; In Rg. I. 104.2 *varṇa* seems to be placed in opposition to *dāsa*. These passages make it clear that the *Āryas* and *dāsas* were two opposing camps and both were designated '*varṇas*' on account of the colour of their skins. The Tai. Br. I. 2. 6 (with reference to the *Mahāvratā* in which there was a mock fight between a *brāhmaṇa* and a *sūdra*) says 'that the *brāhmaṇa* is the divine *varṇa*, and *sūdra* is the *asurya varṇa*'.⁵⁴ If we can interpret the Rgveda verse by the help of the Tai. Br. then in Rg. IX. 71.2, the words '*asuryaṁ varṇam*' mean '*sūdra* tribe.'. There is no doubt that the word *asura* when applied to gods like *Varuṇa* has another meaning also in the Rg. In numerous places in the Rgveda the antagonism

53. यो दासं वर्णमधरं युहा कः । ऋ. II. 12.4; उभौ वर्णावुषिष्ठः युपोष । ऋ. I. 179.6. Here Sayana interprets '*varṇau*' as '*kāma*' and '*tapas*', but this is far-fetched and it appears better to take the passage as meaning that Agastya supported both *Āryas* and *dāsas*. The words cannot reasonably be taken to refer to *Brāhmaṇa* and *Kṣatriya* since there was no difference of colour between the two and since *varṇas* have been four and not two.

54. ब्राह्मणश्च शूद्रश्च चर्मकर्तृ न्यायच्छेते । देव्यो वै वर्णौ ब्राह्मणः असुर्यः शूद्रः । ते. ब्रा. I. 2. 6.

between the *āryas* and *dāsas* or *dasyus* is emphasized and prayers are offered to Indra and other gods for having subdued or for subduing the *dāsa* in favour of the *Ārya*. Rg. I. 51.8; I. 103.3; I. 117.21; II. 11.2, 4, 18, 19; III. 29.9; V. 70.3; VII. 5.6; IX. 88.4; VI. 18.3; VI. 25.2. In Rg. I. 51.8 Indra is requested to mark who are *āryas* and who are *dasyus*. This does not mean that there was difference between the two in bodily appearance only; on the contrary the antithesis between the *ārya* who is referred to as 'barhiṣmat' and the *dasyu* who is styled 'avrata' clearly shows that the emphasis was rather on the difference of their cults. That *dasyu* and *dāsa* are identical in meaning follows from the same epithets being applied to both and from the fact that *dasyu* and *dāsa* occur in the same verses as applying to the same enemy.⁵⁵ In Rg. X. 22.8 *dasyu* and *dāsa* are used in the same verse as applicable to the same enemy. In Rg. X. 99.6 and 8 Indra is represented as killing both *dāsa* and *dasyu* respectively. The *dasyus* are described as 'avrata' (not obeying the ordinances of the gods) in Rg. I. 51.8, I. 175.3, VI. 14.3, 'akratu' (who perform no sacrifice) in VII. 6.3,⁵⁶ 'mr̥dhraṇvācaḥ' (whose speech is indistinct or soft) in VII. 6.3 and V. 29.10, 'anāsaḥ' (snub-nosed or dumb) in Rg. V. 29.10. It appears that *dāsa* and *dasyu* are synonyms and were sometimes styled *asuras*. For example, Śambara is called *dasyu* and *dāsa* in Rgveda VI. 31.4 and *dāsa* in Rg. VI. 26.5 and is also associated with *asuras* like Pipru in VI. 18.8; Pipru is spoken of as a *dāsa* in Rg. VIII. 32.2 and as an *asura* in X. 138.3. Varcin is styled *dāsa* in Rg. IV. 30.15 and VI. 47.21 and *asura* in VII. 99.5. In Tai. S.⁵⁷ (IV. 3.11.3) also it seems that they are held to be identical. The enmity between *dāsa* and *ārya* is breathed in such verses as the following: Rg. II. 11.4 'vanquish the tribe of *dāsas* by the sun (i. e. by the help of a brilliant weapon); Rg. I. 174-7 'You made the earth a pillow for the *dāsa* (i. e. you laid him low on the ground); Rg. III. 12-6 'Oh! Indra and Agni, by one effort together you shook ninety

55. अकर्मा दस्युरभि नो असन्तुरन्पवतो अमाजुषः । त्वं तस्यामित्रहन् वधदसिंस्य दम्भय ॥ ऋ. X. 22.8.

56. न्यक्रतुन् ग्रथिनो सुध्रवाचः पणीरश्रद्धां अदुधां अयज्ञान् । प्रय तान्दस्सूरमिर्विवाय पूर्वश्चकारापरौ अयज्यन् ॥ ऋ. VII. 6.3. This verse applies seven epithets to *dasyus*. They are called *panis* (greedy traders), *अश्रद्धा* (without faith). In Nirukta VI. 31 Yaska paraphrases *सुध्रवाचः* as *सुधुवाचः*. In Rg. V. 34. 6-7 the *dāsa* is styled *pani*.

57. तेन दस्यून् स्वसहन्त देवा हन्तासुराणामभवच्छचीभिः । ते. सं. IV. 3.11.3.

cities that had dāsas as overlords'. It is not possible to say that dāsas or dasyus were some Aryan tribes that had fallen from the worship or culture of the Aryan singers of Vedic hymns. In many places the sage refers to the conquest for him by Indra and other gods of dāsas as well as Aryan foes. For example, 'Protectors of the good! you (two) killed Aryan foes and dāsa foes' Rg. VI. 60-6; 'Oh Indra and Varuṇa! you killed dāsa foes and also Ārya foes and helped Sudās with your protection' Rg. VII. 83.1. Vide also Rg. VI. 22-10, X. 69-6, X. 83-1, X. 102-3. This shows that though the āryans had become divided and fought among themselves, they kept āryas and dāsas quite distinct. The foregoing shows that in the times of the Rgveda there were two antagonistic camps, of the āryas and dāsas or dasyus, they differed in the colour of their skins and also in worship, speech and bodily appearance. Therefore, in the earliest period we find the word varṇa associated only with dāsa and with ārya. Though the words brāhmaṇa and kṣatriya occur frequently in the Rgveda, the word varṇa is not used in connection with them. Even in the Puruṣasūkta (Rgveda X. 90) where the words brāhmaṇa, rājanya, vaiśya and śūdra occur the word varṇa is not used. Hence, one may reasonably say that the only water-tight groups that are positively or expressly vouchsafed by the Rgveda are ārya and dāsa or dasyu. It is often argued that as the word brāhmaṇa denotes a caste in later literature, in the Rgveda also it must be presumed to have the same meaning. But this begs the whole question. No one denies that brāhmaṇa denotes a caste in later literature. But whether it has the same sense in the Rgveda must be determined on the materials furnished by the Rgveda itself. Some rely on the word 'brahmaputra' in Rg. II. 43. 2 as showing that a brāhmaṇa became so only by birth in the Rgveda. But the verse begins by saying that 'you sing a Sāma-like the Udgātr priest' and so 'brahmaputra' must mean a ṛtvij whose duty it was to recite śāstras (the Brāhmaṇāccharṇsin as Sāyaṇa explains). It is generally conceded that the Puruṣasūkta is a much later hymn than most of the hymns of the Rgveda. In the whole of the Rgveda the words vaiśya and śūdra do not occur except in the Puruṣasūkta, though both of them occur in the Atharvaveda (V. 17-9 for vaiśya and IV. 20. 4 and 8 for śūdra and ārya) and very frequently in the Tai. S. Besides we cannot forget that the final redaction of the Rgveda must be held to have been separated from the composition of the individual hymns by several hundred years (if not more) and that even if it be conceded

that at the time when the *Puruṣasūkta* was composed, the four *varṇas* had been constituted and had become castes, yet the same cannot be affirmed for the time of the original composition of the other hymns. The word *brāhmaṇa* occurs several times in the *Rgveda*:⁵⁸ 'Oh *brāhmaṇas*, Oh *pitṛs* fond of soma! May the sinless *Dyāvāpṛthivī* (Heaven and Earth) tend to our welfare'; 'Like *brāhmaṇas* in the *Atirātra* where soma is to be drunk, uttering (words) round a lake full of water you have, Oh frogs, gathered together on that day of the year on which the rains begin' (*Rg. VII. 103. 7*);⁵⁹ 'The *brāhmaṇas*, who drink soma, reciting prayers of the yearly sacrifice, have sent forth their speech' (*Rg. VII. 103. 8*). In this verse *brāhmaṇas* are expressly said to be getting 'brahma' ready. 'May *Agni* who devours everything make that (dead body) free from disease and (may) soma also (do the same) who entered into the *brāhmaṇas*' (*Rg. X. 16. 6*). 'When the *brāhmaṇas* worship together as friends in hymns (lit. speed of the mind) that are fabricated from their hearts' (*Rg. X. 71. 8*). In *Rg. VI. 75. 10* *brāhmaṇas* are invoked for welfare along with *pitṛs*. This shows that the *brāhmaṇas* were highly venerated. The other verses establish that they were the reciters of hymns (*brahma*) and drank soma. In *Rg. VIII. 35. 16-18* we read 'You (*Asvins*) urge on (or inspire) *brahma*, you urge on our thoughts (or actions), you kill the evil spirits and subdue diseases; (17) you urge *ksātra* (valour) and also men, you kill evil spirits (same as 16); (18) you urge on the cows and also the *Viś* (the rest is same as 16).' Here it seems that the groups of people (*viz.* those who think and make songs, those who show valour and lead men, and those common people who tend cattle) are clearly meant. These verses may be conceded as pointing to the existence of three groups (*brāhmaṇas*, *ksātriyas* and *viśah*) but there is nothing in them to show that these three had crystallised into somewhat like the castes of later times. In *Rg. VII. 33. 11* *Vasiṣṭha* is addressed as *brahman*, but that does not mean that he was a *brāhmaṇa* (by birth), as he is said to have been born of *Urvaśī* from *Mitra* and *Varuṇa*. Similarly, in

58. ब्राह्मणासः पितरः सोम्यासः शिवे नो द्यावापृथिवी अनेहसा । ऋ. VI. 75.10.

59. ब्राह्मणासो अतिरात्रे न सोमे सरो न पूर्णमभितो वदन्तः । संवत्सरस्य तद्वहः परि ह यन्मण्डूकाः प्रावृषीणं वयुव ॥ ऋ. 7. 103. 7; ब्राह्मणासः सोमिनो वाचमक्रत ब्रह्म कुण्वन्तः परिवत्सरीणम् । ऋ. 7. 103. 8; अग्निष्टद्विश्वाद्गवं कुणोतु सोमश्च यो ब्राह्मणो आविषेत् । ऋ. 10. 16. 6; इदा तद्यु मनसो जवेपु यद्ब्राह्मणाः संयजन्ते सखायः । ऋ. X. 71. 8; चत्वारि वाक्पतिमिता पदानि तानि विदुर्ब्राह्मणा ये मनीषिणः ॥ ऋ. I. 164. 45.

Rg. IX. 96. 6 (Brahmā devānām) the word brahmā⁶⁰ does not certainly mean 'brāhmaṇa by birth', nor does 'viprāṇām' mean 'brāhmaṇas by birth'. In that verse one who is super-eminent among a group is specified, just as the buffalo among animals, the hawk among carnivorous birds &c. In Rg. VIII. 33. 19 'look down and not up; bring your feet close together; may thy kaṣaplakas (legs?) be not seen, for though a brahmā, thou wert born a woman,' it is impossible to hold that the last words mean 'thou wert a brāhmaṇa woman'. If it is only intended to refer to the fact that she is a brāhmaṇa woman, there is no reason why the Perfect tense (babhūvitha) is used and not the present. Here 'brahmā' most probably means 'a priest of that name', as that is the meaning in Rg. II. I. 2 (brahmā cāsi gr̥hapatis-ca no dame). The word 'brahmayāyā' in Rg. X. 109. 2, 3, 6 and 7 does not mean the wife of a brāhmaṇa by birth but rather 'wife of Br̥haspati'. The whole hymn is obscure and more or less enigmatic or allegorical. In the Aitareya-brāhmaṇa⁶¹ 35. 2-4 it is said that soma is the food of brāhmaṇas and that a kṣatriya was to press the tendrils of the Nyagrodha tree and the fruits of Udumbara, Aśvattha and Plakṣa and drink the juice so pressed instead of soma. It appears, therefore, that the brāhmaṇas were a distinct group even in the earliest period of the Rgveda. Whether they were hereditary is certainly not clear; nor is there anything to show that there were restrictions as regards partaking of food from persons other than brāhmaṇas or as to marriage. That brahmaṇas in the Rgveda were a class by themselves may be conceded, but whether they had become a caste by birth is a matter of opinion dependent on the connotation given to the word caste. Dr. Ghurye ('Caste and race in India' p. 42) thinks, probably following the Vedic Index (vol. I on Kṣatriya), that the reference in Rg. X. 71. 9 to a false claim for being regarded as a brāhmaṇa points to the conclusion that brāhmaṇas had become a caste. The verse literally translated means 'these (persons) who do not move below nor beyond, who are neither brāhmaṇas, nor engaged in pressing soma—they

60. ब्रह्मा देवानां पदवीः कवीनामुषिर्विमाणं महिषो मृगाणां । इवेनो वृध्राणां स्वाधितिर्वनानां सोमः पवित्रमत्येति रेभन् । ऋ. IX. 96.6; अथः पश्यस्व मोपरि संतरां पादुको हर । मा ते कशकौ दशन् स्त्री हि ब्रह्मा वधूविथ ॥ ऋ. VIII. 33. 19.

61. व्युद्धमेवाद्यापि क्षत्रं सोमपथिन । ...स यदि सोमं ब्राह्मणानां भक्षः । अथास्यैष स्वो भक्षो न्यग्रोधस्यावरोधाश्च फलानि चौदुम्बराणि चाश्वत्थानि ह्लाक्षाण्यभिपुष्पात् तानि भक्षयेत्सोऽस्य स्वो भक्षः । ऐ. ब्रा. 35. 2-4; vide पूर्वमीमांसासूत्र III. 5. 22, III. 5. 47-51, III. 6. 36 and Śābara's bhāṣya thereon for this subject.

being ignorant and having resorted to speech in sinful (or coarse) language take to ploughshares and engage in (agricultural) operations'. It is difficult to see how there is here any false claim to be regarded as a brāhmaṇa. This verse means apparently that those who are not composers of prayers or drinkers of soma (because they are ignorant) are men of low speech and have to turn to agriculture. Even in the days of the dharma-sūtras restrictions as to food and marriage for brāhmaṇas were not at all as rigid as they became in medieval and modern times; but even when these restrictions were not rigid it was clearly laid down that a brāhmaṇa is so by birth alone. The word 'brahma' generally means in the Rgveda 'prayer' or 'hymn'. Vide⁶² Rg. IV. 6.11, VI. 52.2, X. 105.8, X. 141.5 ('Oh Agni, make our prayer and sacrifice prosper by your flames'). Rg. III. 53.12 is 'this brahma (prayer or spiritual power) of Viśvāmitra protects the Bhārata people'. In the Atharvaveda II. 15.4 (as brahma and kṣatra entertain no fear, nor are they harmed) brahma seems to mean 'the class of brāhmaṇas'. The transition of meaning from 'brahma' (prayer) to 'brahma' meaning the class of those who composed or recited prayers is natural and easy. In the Rgveda I. 157.2 both brahma and kṣatra occur⁶³ in the same verse where they probably mean 'prayer' and 'valour' respectively. In the Atharvaveda III. 19.1 both words occur and probably mean the same thing as in Rg. I. 157.2. In some Vedic works brahma and kṣatra stand collectively for brāhmaṇas⁶⁴ and kṣatriyas (e. g. Tai. Br. II. 7.18, Br. Up. I. 4.11, Kāthopanīṣad I. 2. 24). The word kṣatriya is very frequently applied as an epithet to several gods; e. g. Rg. VII. 64. 2 and VIII. 25. 8 (in both to Mitra and Varuna), Rg. VIII. 67. 1 (to Adityas), Rg. X. 66.8 (to gods in general). In some verses kṣatriya means 'a king or a nobleman'; e. g. Rg. IV. 42.1 'the kingdom on both sides (heaven and earth) belongs to me, who am a kṣatriya and who holds sway over all living persons, so that all the immortals (gods) are ours (on my side)';⁶⁵ Rg. X. 109.3

62. त्वं नो अग्ने अग्निभिर्ब्रह्म यज्ञं च वर्धय । ऋ. X. 141.5, विश्वामित्रस्य रक्षति ब्रह्मेवं भारतं जनम् । ऋ. III. 53. 12.

63. यद्युजाये वृषणमश्विना रथं घृतेन नो मधुना क्षत्रमुक्षतम् । अस्माकं ब्रह्म पृतनासु जिवन्तं वयं धना दूरसाता भजेमहि ॥ ऋ. I. 157.2.

64. ब्रह्म वै ब्राह्मणः क्षत्रं राजन्यः । तै. ब्रा. III. 9. 14.

65. मम द्विता राष्ट्रं क्षत्रियस्य विश्वायोर्विश्वे असुता यथा नः । ऋ. IV. 42.1. Acc. to the Anukramaṇī this is a hymn of king Trasadesyu son of Purukutsa.

the mercy of Indra. Unless we project our notions of the later state of society and the caste system when considering this verse, it is hardly possible to hold that this verse indicates that it refers to persons making a false claim for entrance into a compact body of kṣatriyas by birth. Dr. Ghurye also says (p. 44) 'The 2nd order in society, the kṣatriya, is known in the earlier portions of the R̥gveda as rājanya.' I have not been able to find the word rājanya in the R̥gveda any where except in the Puruṣa-sūkta. In the Aitareya brāhmaṇa (chap. 34. 2) the word 'rājanya' stands for a member of the 2nd class in society, while kṣatriya means a king of whom land (for sacrifice to gods) is asked for by brāhmaṇa, rājanya or vaiśya.

Though the word vaiśya occurs in the R̥gveda only in the Puruṣasūkta, the word 'viś' is very frequently employed in it. It generally means 'people or group of people'. In a large number of cases we have the words *mānuṣīr-viśaḥ* or *mānuṣīṣu vikṣu* or *mānuṣīnām viśām*, e. g. R̥g. III. 5. 3, III. 6. 3, III. 11. 5 (invincible Agni goes in front of human groups), IV. 6. 7 and 8, IV. 9. 2, V. 1. 9, V. 8. 3, VI. 48. 8, VI. 47. 16 (*viśo mānuṣyān*), X. 1. 4, X. 69. 9. In some places we have 'dāsīr viśaḥ' (the dāsa hordes) e. g. IV. 28. 4, VI. 25. 2. In ⁶⁸ R̥g. III. 34. 2 we have 'Oh Indra, you are the leader of human hordes as well as of divine hordes' (where we have *daivīnām viśām*). R̥g. ⁶⁹ VIII. 63. 7 (when loud invocations were sent towards Indra by the people consisting of five groups) shows that 'viś' means all the Aryan people. In R̥g. V. 32. 11 Indra is styled 'pāñcajanya' (favourable to the five people) and in IX. 66. 20 Agni has the appellation 'pāñcajanyaḥ purohitaḥ' (the *purohita* of the five peoples). Sometimes *jana* and *viś* seem to be contradistinguished as in R̥g. II. 26. 3 (*sa ijanena sa viśā sa janmanā sa putrair-vājam bharate dhanā nṛbhiḥ*). But the very fact that *viś* is qualified also as *pāñcajanya* shows that

68. इन्द्र क्षितीनामसि मातृषीणां विशां दैवीनामुत पूर्वयावा । ऋ. III. 34. 2.

69. यत्पाञ्चजन्यया विनेन्द्र घोषा असृक्षत । ऋ. VIII. 63. 7. Śaṅkara in his bhāṣya on Vedāntasūtra I. 4. 12 says that the word *pāñcajanya* in R̥g. VIII. 63. 7 means 'prajā' (people) and also notes that according to some 'pāñca janāḥ' are devas, pitṛs, asuras, gandharvas and rakṣases; while according to others they are the four varṇas and niṣādas as the fifth. The Ait. Br. (13. 7) gives an explanation of *pāñca janāḥ* similar to the first 'पाञ्चजन्यं वा एतदुक्तं यद्वैश्वदेवं सर्वेषां वा एतत्पाञ्चजनानामुक्तं देवमनुष्याणां गन्धर्वाप्सरसां सर्पाणां च पितॄणां च'. The Nirukta (III. 8) in explaining R̥g. X. 53. 4 remarks about *pāñca janāḥ*. 'गन्धर्वाः पितरो देवा असुरा रक्षांसि-त्येके । चत्वारो वर्णा निषादः पाञ्चम इत्यौपमन्यवः ।'

there was hardly any distinction between jana and viś. In the R̥gveda frequent reference is made to five people (pañca janāḥ); vide R̥g. III. 37. 9, III. 59. 7, VI. 11. 4, VIII. 32. 22, X. 65. 23, X. 45. 6. In the same way the words kṛṣṭi (II. 2. 10, IV. 38. 10), kṣiti (V. 35. 2, VI. 48. 7, VII. 75. 4), carsani (V. 86. 2, VII. 15. 2) are employed along with *pañca*. We have also 'pāñcājanyāsu kṛṣṭiṣu' in R̥g. III. 53. 16. So it is clear that *viś* cannot in almost all hymns of the R̥g. mean 'vaiśya' but means the 'people' or 'āryan people' when no epithet like 'dāsiḥ' or 'daivīḥ' is prefixed.⁷⁰ The Ait. Br. (I. 26) says that 'viśaḥ' means 'rāṣṭrāṇi' (countries) when explaining R̥g. IV. 50. 8 (tasmai viśaḥ svayam-śvānamante).

The word 'dāsa' in later literature means 'a serf or a slave.' It follows that the dāsa tribes that we see opposed to the Āryas in the R̥gveda were gradually vanquished and were then made to serve the Āryas. In the Manusmṛiti (VIII. 413) the śūdra is said to have been created by God for service (*dāśya*) of the brāhmaṇa.⁷¹ We find in the Tai. S., the Tai. Br. and other Brāhmaṇa works that the śūdra occupies the same position that he does in the smṛtis. Therefore it is reasonable to infer that the *dāśas* or *dasyus* conquered by the Āryas were gradually transformed into the śūdras. From being enemies they were brought into friendly relations and given a very subordinate position. Traces are visible even in the R̥gveda that friendly relations had begun to be established between certain dāśas and the priests. For example in R̥g. VIII. 46. 32 we read 'the singer took a hundred (cows or other gifts) from the dāsa Balbūtha and from Tarukṣa.' In the Puruṣasūkta (X. 90. 12) the brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya, vaiśya and śūdra are said to have sprung from the mouth, arms, thighs and feet of the supreme Puruṣa. In the very next verse the sun and the moon are said to have been born from the eye and mind of the Puruṣa. This shows that the composer of the hymn regarded the division of society into four classes to be very ancient and to be as natural and God-ordained as the sun and the moon.

We shall now see what position was assigned to the śūdra in the Vedic Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas. In the R̥gveda the Ārya is contradistinguished from the men 'of dark skin.' In the dharmasūtras we find the śūdras spoken of as 'dark varṇa.'

70. Vide R̥g. I. 25. 1, I. 114. 3, VI. 15. 1, X. 173. 4 for 'viś' by itself.

71. शूद्रं तु कारयेद् द्रास्यं क्रीतमक्रीतमेव वा । दास्ययैव हि शूद्रोसौ ब्राह्मणस्य स्वयंभुवा ॥ मनु VIII. 413

Vide Āp. Dh. S. I. 9. 27. 11 which is the same as Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 59.⁷² 'The śūdra among men and the horse among beasts. Therefore those two, the horse and the śūdra, are the conveyances of beings; therefore the śūdra is not fit (or ordained) for sacrifice' (Tai. S. VII. 1. 1. 6).⁷³ This shows that the śūdra could not perform the Vedic sacrifices and that he was employed for carrying persons in a palanquin or otherwise. In Tai. S. V. 7. 6. 3-4 we have 'put light (glory) in our brāhmanas, put it in our chiefs (or kings), (put) light in vaiśyas and śūdras, put light in me by your light.'⁷⁴ This is a sure indication that the śūdra who took the place of the dāsa is here placed on the same level with the other three classes in the matter of the receipt of light from God and that far from being looked upon as an enemy, he had come to be looked upon as a member of the society (though the lowest in the scale). 'The śūdra is a moving burial ground; therefore one should not study the Veda in the vicinity of a śūdra.'⁷⁵ 'He created the brāhmaṇa with Gāyatrī, the rājanya with Triṣṭubh and the vaiśya with Jagatī; but he did not create the śūdra with any metre.'⁷⁶ The Tāpdyamahābrāhmaṇa says⁷⁷ 'Therefore a śūdra, though he may have many beasts, is not entitled to perform sacrifice, he is godless as no deity was created after him (as in the case of the other varṇas); therefore he does not go beyond washing the feet (of the three other varṇas), since he was created from the feet' (this last being an allusion to the Puruṣasūkta X. 90. 12 *padbhyām śūdro ajāyata*). This shows that the śūdra, however rich in cattle he might be, had to perform the menial duty of washing the feet of *dvijas*. The

72. यदेकरात्रेण करेति पापं कृष्णं वर्णं ब्राह्मणः सेवमानः । चतुर्थकाल उदकाम्यवायी त्रिभिर्वर्णैस्तदपहन्ति पापम् ॥ आप. ध. सू. I. 9. 27. 11=बौ. ध. सू. II. 1. 59=शान्तिपर्व 165. 29.

73. शूद्रो मनुष्याणामश्वः पशूनां तस्मात्तौ भूतसंक्रामिणावश्वश्च शूद्रश्च तस्माच्छूद्रो यज्ञेऽनवकूतः । तै. सं. VII. 1. 1. 6.

74. रुचं नो धेहि ब्राह्मणेण रुचं राजसु नस्तुधि । रुचं विश्वेण शूद्रेण मयि धेहि रुचा रुचम् ॥ तै. सं. V. 7. 6. 3-4.

75. पशु वा एतच्छूद्रानं यच्छूद्रः । तस्माच्छूद्रसमीपे नाध्येयम् । This is quoted by Sabara on Jaimini VI. 1. 38 as a śruti. वसिष्ठ ध. सू. 18. 11-12 echoes these words 'एके वा एतच्छूद्रानं ये शूद्राः । तस्माच्छूद्रसमीपे नाध्येतव्यम् ।' पशु...च्छूद्रः is cited as Satapatha Śruti by the Śūdrakamālākara (p. 3).

76. This is quoted by Vas. Dh. S. IV. 3. Vide Ait. Br. 5. 12 'गायत्री वै ब्राह्मणः त्रैष्टुभो वै राजन्यः जागतो वै वैश्यः'.

77. तस्माच्छूद्र उत बहुपशुरयज्ञिभो विदेवो नहि तं काचन देवतान्वसृज्यत तस्मात्पादावनेज्यं नातिवर्धते पत्तो हि सृष्टः । ताण्ड्य VI. 1. 11.

Śatapatha Br. says that 'the śūdra is untruth' (S. B. E. vol. 44. p. 446), that 'the śūdra is toil' (S. B. E. vol. 44 p. 410), and that a dīkṣita (one who was initiated for a Vedic sacrifice) was not to speak with a śūdra (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 4). The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa remarks that 'the śūdra⁷⁸ is at the beck and call of others (the three varṇas), he can be made to rise at will, he can be beaten at will.' When the father of Śunaḥśepa⁷⁹ (who had sold Śunaḥśepa for 100 coins and had shown himself ready to kill him as a paśu for another hundred coins) urged his son to come back to him after the boy had been taken into favour by Varuṇa and Viśvāmitra, he contemptuously discards his father's proposal with the words 'one who commits an evil deed once may commit another sinful deed thereafter; you did not leave aside the śūdra's line of conduct; you did what leaves no door for reconciliation.' These passages show that the śūdra, though he had ceased to be an enemy of the ārya and had been allowed to be within the pale of society, was looked down upon, was assigned a very low position, had to perform work of toil as a menial and was not allowed to perform Vedic sacrifices. A clear line of demarcation was kept between the Ārya and the Śūdra in the times of the Brāhmaṇa works and even in the dharmasūtras. The Tāṇḍya Brāhmaṇa⁸⁰ speaks of a mock fight 'the śūdra and ārya fight on a hide, out of the two they so arrange that the ārya colour becomes the victor'. The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1.3.40-41) says⁸¹ that a brāhmacārin, if he cannot himself eat all the food he has brought by begging, may keep it near an ārya (for his use) or he may give it to a śūdra who is a dāsa (of his teacher). The same Dharmasūtra⁸² (II. 2.3. 1 and 4) says 'Āryas who are pure (by bath) should prepare the food for Vaiśvadeva;.....or śūdras supervised by āryas should prepare it'. Similarly Gautama X. 69 uses the word 'anārya for śūdra and Gautama 12.3 prescribes heavy punishment for a

78. (शूद्रः) अन्यस्य प्रेष्यः कामोत्थाप्यो यथाकामवद्भवः । ऐ. ब्रा. 35.3

79 यः सकृत्पापकं कुर्यात्कुयदिनस्ततोऽपरम् । नापागाः शौद्रान्यायादुत्सन्धेयं त्वया कृतम् ॥ ऐ. ब्रा. 33. 5. The legend of Śunaḥśepa is referred to even in Rg. I. 24.12-13 and V. 2.7 (where it is expressly said that Śunaḥśepa was released by Varuṇa from the sacrificial post to which he had been tied).

80. शूद्रार्यौ चर्मणि व्याचच्छेते तयोरार्यवर्णस्तुजापयन्ति । ताण्ड्य V. 5. 14.

81. आर्या वा पर्यवद्भ्यात् । अन्तर्धिने वा शूद्राय । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 3. 40-41

82. आर्याः प्रयता वैश्वदेवेऽन्नसंस्कर्तारः स्युः । आर्याधिष्ठिता वा शूद्राः संस्कर्तारः स्युः । आप. ध. सू. II. 2. 3. 1 and 4.

śūdra having sexual intercourse with an ārya woman. Jaimini in his Pūrvamīmāṃsā sūtra (VI. 1.25-38) establishes after elaborate discussion that the śūdra has no *adhikāra* for the performance of Agnihotra and Vedic sacrifices. It is, however, somewhat gratifying to find that at least one ācārya, Bādari, espoused the cause of the śūdra and propounded the view that all (including śūdras) were entitled to perform Vedic sacrifices (VI. 1.27). In the Vedānta-sūtras also (I. 3.34-38) it is established that the śūdra has no *adhikāra* for brahmavidyā based on Veda study, though some śūdras like Vidura might have been endowed with the knowledge of *brahma* owing to saṁskāras of former births. In the smṛti literature, however, a few passages are found allowing marriages of āryas with śūdra women (which will be discussed later on). Similarly sexual relations (illicit) between a śūdra woman and a man of higher varṇa are alluded to even in the Samhitās e. g. Tai. S.⁸³ VII. 4.19.3 'when a śūdra woman has an ārya as her paramour she does not seek wealth for the prosperity (of her relations)'. In Ait. Br. (8.1) there is the story of Kavaṣa Ailūṣa, who was driven out from the sacrifice on the Sarasvatī with the words 'Oh, son of a female slave, you are a rogue and not a brāhmaṇa; how did you take the dikṣā (initiation) as one of us' and they carried him off to a sandy desert with the idea that he might die of thirst there. He when tormented by thirst 'saw' the hymn Rg. X. 30 and Sarasvatī came rushing to him.⁸⁴ Further discussion about the śūdra and his disabilities will follow in another section later.

The position of the three varṇas *inter se* (called collectively ārya) now requires consideration. It is clear that the Samhitās other than the Rgveda and Brāhmaṇa works show that the three classes of brāhmaṇas, kṣatriyas and vaiśyas had become differentiated and their privileges, duties and liabilities had become more or less fixed in those times.

83. शूद्रा यद्वर्जजारा न पोषाय धनायति। तै. सं. VII. 4. 19.3 and Vājasaneyn Samhitā 23. 30. 'Arya' may mean an Ārya, or simply 'master' or 'vaiśya' (as in later literature). The words न...यति may mean 'He (the father of the śūdra woman) does not desire wealth for his own prosperity' (as he is pained by the event).

84. A similar story is told in the Śāṅkhayana Brāhmaṇa XII. 3. The words 'dāsyāḥ putraḥ' may be only terms of abuse or they may mean that, though he posed to be a brāhmaṇa, he was the son of a brāhmaṇa from a dās'.

In Rg. IV. 50.8 we read 'that king alone who places brahmā first (i. e. honours him) dwells happy in his house, for him the earth always remains prosperous and to him all the people (or kingdoms) bow down of their own accord'. 'Brāhmaṇas⁸⁵ are gods that are directly seen' (Tai. S. I. 7. 3. 1); 'there are two kinds of gods; for indeed the gods are gods and the brāhmaṇas who have studied and teach the sacred lore are the human gods' Śat. Br. (S. B. E. vol. 12 p. 309, vol. 26 p. 341). In the Atharvaveda V. 17. 19 there is an assertion of the pre-eminence of brāhmaṇas and the consequences of harming them or their cows. 'Therefore the brāhmaṇa is the foremost' (Tai. S. II. 6. 2. 5, V. 2. 7. 1). 'Therefore the brāhmaṇa shows his might by his mouth, since he was created from the mouth' (Tāndya Br. XI. 1. 2).⁸⁶ In the Ait. Br. (33. 4) Varuṇa, when he was told that a brāhmaṇa boy would be offered in place of the son of the king Hariścandra, is made to say 'a brāhmaṇa is indeed preferable to a ksatriya'. The mere fact of birth as brāhmaṇa's son is represented here as giving to the boy pre-eminence over a king's son. On the other hand the Śat. Br. says (V. 1. 1. 12) 'a brāhmaṇa⁸⁷ is not adequate to (competent to manage) a kingdom'. In the Tai. Br. it is said that playing on the vīṇā (in the Aśvamedha) is to be done by a brāhmaṇa and a rājanya (and not by two brāhmaṇas), since wealth does not find delight in the brāhmaṇa. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁸⁸ (XI. 5. 7. 1) lays emphasis on the four peculiar attributes of brāhmaṇas viz. brāhmaṇya (purity of parentage as a brāhmaṇa), pratirūpacaryā (befitting deportment or conduct), yaśas (glory) and lokapakti (the teaching or perfecting of people). 'When the people are being perfected or taught by him, people endow him with four privileges viz. arcā (honour), dāna (gifts), ajyeyatā (freedom

85. एते वै देवाः प्रत्यक्षे यद् ब्राह्मणाः । तै. सं. I. 7. 3. 1; यावतीर्षे देवतास्ताः सर्वा वेदविद् ब्राह्मणे वसन्ति तस्माद् ब्राह्मणेभ्यो वेदविद्भ्यो द्विवे द्विवे नमस्कुर्वीत् । नाश्लीलं कीर्तयेद्देता एव देवताः प्रीणाति । तै. आ. II. 15 and 'ब्राह्मणो वा आर्षेयः सर्वा देवताः ।' शतपथ XII. 4. 4. 6; तस्माद्ब्राह्मणो मुखेन वीर्यं करोति मुखतो हि सृष्टः । ताण्ड्यमहा-ब्रा. VI. 1. 6. The same idea is expressed in the उत्तररामचरित V. 'वाचि वीर्यं द्विजानाम्.'

86. ब्रह्म हि पूर्वं क्षत्रात् । ताण्ड्यमहा ब्रा. XI. 1. 2; भूयान्त्रै ब्राह्मणः क्षत्रियादिति वरुण उवाच । ऐ. ब्रा. 33. 4.

87. 'न वै ब्राह्मणो राज्यायालम्' शतपथ V. 1. 1. 12; S. B. E. vol. 41 p. 4. न वै ब्राह्मणे श्री रमते इति ब्राह्मणेभ्यो गायत्र्याजन्योन्यः । तै. ब्रा. III. 9. 14.

88. प्रज्ञा वर्धमाना चतुरो धर्मत्वा ब्राह्मणसमिनिष्पादयति ब्राह्मण्यं प्रतिरूपचर्या यज्ञो लोकपक्ति लोकः पच्यमानश्चतुर्भिर्धर्मैः ब्राह्मणं भुनक्त्यर्चया च दानेन चाज्येतया चावश्यतया च । शतपथ XI. 5. 7. 1.

from being harassed) and avadhyatā (freedom from being beaten). The Śatapatha (V. 4. 6. 9) expressly mentions that brāhmaṇa, rājanya, vaiśya and śūdra are the four varṇas. Teaching had become so much associated with the brāhmaṇas that when the brāhmaṇa Gārgya approached king Ajātasatru for the knowledge of *brahma*, the latter replied "this is contrary to the natural order that a brāhmaṇa should approach a kṣatriya with the idea 'he (kṣatriya) will propound to me brahma'." In a separate section below all the privileges enjoyed by the brāhmaṇas will be set out at one place.⁸⁹

89. स होवाचाजातज्ञः प्रतिलोमं चैतद्यद् ब्राह्मणः क्षत्रियमुपेयाद् ब्रह्म मे वक्ष्यतीति । बृह. उ. II. 1.15; तं होवाचाजातज्ञः प्रतिलोमरूपमेव स्याद्यत्क्षत्रियो ब्राह्मणमुपनयति । कौषीतकिब्रा. उ. IV. 18. In the Tai. S. IV. 5. 11. 9 we read यद् ब्राह्मणश्चाब्राह्मणश्च प्रश्नमेयातां ब्राह्मणायाधिभूयाद्यद् ब्राह्मणायाध्याहात्मनेभ्याह यद् ब्राह्मणं पराहात्मनं पराह तस्माद् ब्राह्मणो न परोच्यः । This literally means 'if a brāhmaṇa and a non-brāhmaṇa come (to a man) asking him a question, then he should speak to the brāhmaṇa first; that he speaks to the brāhmaṇa first is really tantamount to speaking first to one-self; when he speaks away from the brāhmaṇa (i. e. he speaks to the non-brāhmaṇa first and then to the brāhmaṇa) that is really speaking away to oneself; therefore a brāhmaṇa should not be spoken away (i. e. postponed to non-brāhmaṇas).' Manu VIII. 24 says that a king should take up the causes of litigants in the order of the varṇas (i. e. if there are two plaintiffs coming with complaints at the same time the brāhmaṇa's complaint should be first attended to). Bṛhaspati says the same thing. Therefore the Tai. S. should be interpreted in the same way. Another meaning is possible viz. if a brāhmaṇa and a non-brāhmaṇa come to a person and ask him who is superior, the person should declare that the brāhmaṇa is the superior of the two (on account of his birth as brāhmaṇa probably or of his being a learned man). This sense of 'adhi' as meaning 'superior' is found in Manu I. 99 'since brāhmaṇa when born becomes (or is born) superior (to all) on this wide earth.' Prof. Keith in his translation of Tai. S. (Harvard Oriental Series, vol. 18 p. 203) says in a footnote "it is not absolutely certain that *adhibrū* means 'decide in favour of' rather than 'speak in favour of.'" Vide also Vedic Index (II. p. 83). Dr. Ghurye (in 'Caste and race in India' p. 43) says 'in a legal dispute between a brāhmaṇa or non-brāhmaṇa an arbitrator or witness must speak in favour of the former.' It appears that Dr. Ghurye simply follows the rather guardedly expressed view of the famous Professor, but makes the sense more emphatic than Prof. Keith puts it and does not think for himself whether any other meaning is possible or more appropriate. Any stick is good for beating the brāhmaṇa with. The brāhmaṇas were never ashamed in the smṛti texts of declaring the privileges they

(Continued on next page)

The position of kṣatriyas and their relation to the brāhmaṇas falls to be considered now. First of all with reference to the king several important passages may be cited. In some cases 'rājan' means only 'a noble' or 'chief', as in Rg. X. 42. 10, X. 97. 6. In many passages 'rājan' means 'king'. The government often seems to have been tribal, such tribes as Yadus, Turvaśas, Druhyus, Anus and Pūrus (Rg. I. 108. 8) being frequently mentioned (vide Rg. VII. 18. 6 for Bhrgus and Druhyus and VII. 18. 7 for Trtsus, VIII. 6. 46 for Yādvas). Whether kingship was by election it is not necessary here to discuss. The king was regarded as keeping the people within bounds.⁹⁰ When a king was crowned, it was thought that 'a kṣatriya was produced, a lord of all beings, the defender of brāhmaṇas (or of holy texts) and of dharma.'⁹¹ The Sat. Br. says 'for these two (śrotriya and king) are the upholders of the sacred law among men' (S. B. E. vol. 41 p. 106).⁹² That the co-operation between brāhmaṇa and kṣatriya results in glory and success is frequently emphasized e. g. 'therefore a brāhmaṇa must certainly be approached by a kṣatriya who is about to perform some act, for indeed that act of a kṣatriya which is sped on by brāhmaṇa succeeds' (Śatapatha, S. B. E. vol. 26 pp. 270-271)⁹³. The *purohita* of a

(Continued from last page)

claimed. But they never claimed to be treated in a court of law as above truth and justice. If they had taken the Tai. S. passage in the sense in which Dr. Ghurye takes it they would never have scrupled to say so in smṛti works and would have quoted the Tai. S. in support. Hence the meaning is different. There is no question here of an arbitration or judicial decision. In Rg. I. 100. 19 there is a similar expression 'May Indra speak in our favour on all days' (विश्वदेवो अधिवक्ता नो अस्तु). Vide Rg. X. 63. 11 and Vāj. S. 16. 5 for the verb 'vac' with 'adhi' in the sense of 'speak in favour of' or 'bless.'

90. तस्माद्वाज्ञा मनुष्या विधृताः । ते. सं. II. 6. 2. 2.

91. क्षत्रियोऽजनि विश्वस्य धृतस्याधिपतिरजनि विश्वानंताजनि ... ब्रह्मणो गोसाजनि धर्मस्य गोसाजनि । ऐ. ब्रा. 38 and 39. 3.

92. Varuṇa is frequently called धृतव्रत (e. g. ऋ. I. 25. 8 and 10 and once even the yajamāna is so called (ऋ. I. 25. 6); the शतपथ V. 4. 4. 5 explains ऋ. I. 25. 10 as 'निषसाद् धृतव्रत इति । धृतव्रतो वै राजा ... एष च श्रोत्रियश्च तौ द्वे द्वौ मनुष्येभु धृतव्रतौ ॥'. In गौतम VIII. 1 practically the same words occur 'द्वौ लोके धृतव्रतौ राजा ब्राह्मणश्च बहुश्रुतः'. Manu IX. 322 and Nārada (prakṛpaka 42) express the same idea.

93. तस्माद् क्षत्रियेण कर्म करिष्यमाणेनोपसर्तस्य एव ब्राह्मणः । स हैवास्मै तद् ब्रह्ममसृतं कर्म धर्यते । शतपथ ब्रा. IV. 1. 4. 6; the words ब्रह्म ... धर्यते occur in गौतम XI. 14.

ksatriya came to occupy a very high position. The Śatapatha (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 270) lays emphasis on the importance of the purohita and cautions a brāhmaṇa against being the purohita of any king he meets with and adds that a brāhmaṇa may remain without a king, but a king should not be without a brāhmaṇa. Even the gods required a purohita, as the Tai. S. II. 5. 1. 1. says 'Viśvarūpa son of Tvaṣṭṛ was the purohita of gods.'⁹⁴ Śaṇḍa and Amarka were the purohitas of the Asuras (Kāthaka S. IV. 4). Agni is often called *purohita* (Ṛg. I. 1. 1., I. 44. 10, III. 2. 8). 'May we, purohitas, be awake in the kingdom (for its welfare)' says the Tai. S. (I. 7. 10. 1). The Ait. Br. (chap. 34. 8) says⁹⁵ 'the purohita is half the soul of the ksatriya' and contains an eulogy of purohita in the following words (40. 1) "for indeed the gods do not eat the food of a king who has no purohita; therefore a king when about to offer a sacrifice should have a brāhmaṇa as his purohita with the idea 'may the gods eat my food.'" The combination of the brāhmaṇa and the rājanya is said to be most desirable and that it is conducive to the eminence of both is declared in the Tai. S. (V. 1. 10. 3)⁹⁶ 'Therefore a brāhmaṇa who is supported by a rājanya is superior to another brāhmaṇa (not so supported), hence a rājanya who has a brāhmaṇa (to help him) is superior to another rājanya'. The Śatapatha (V. 4. 4. 15) declares 'that king indeed who is not powerful to the brāhmaṇas (i. e. who is humble before the brāhmaṇas) becomes more powerful than his foes.'⁹⁷ It is not to be supposed that this attainment of the supreme position by brāhmaṇas was an affair of plain sailing. Sometimes ksatriyas claimed higher position and also paid scant respect to brāhmaṇas. In the Śatapatha we read 'whence the brāhmaṇa is an object of respect after the king' (S. B. E. vol. 41, p. 96); 'hence the people here serve, from a lower position, the ksatriya seated above them' Śatapatha (S. B. E. vol. 12 p. 94); 'hence when a nobleman approaches, all these people, the subjects crouch down by him on the ground' Śatapatha (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 228); 'therefore there is nothing higher than the ksatra;

94. विश्वरूपो वै त्वाष्ट्रः पुरोहितो देवानामासीत् स्वस्त्रीयोऽसुराणाम् । तै. सं. II. 5. 1. 1.

95. अर्धात्मो ह वा एष क्षत्रियस्य यत्पुरोहितः । ऐ. ब्रा. 34. 8; न ह वा अपुरोहितस्य राज्ञो देवा अन्नमदन्ति तस्माद्राजा यश्चमाणो ब्राह्मणं पुरोधितं देवा मेऽन्नमदाक्षति । ऐ. ब्रा. 40. 1.

96. तस्माद्ब्राह्मणो राजन्यवानत्यन्यं ब्राह्मणं तस्माद्राजन्यो ब्राह्मणवानत्यन्यं राजन्यम् । तै. सं. V. 1. 10. 3.

97. यो वै राजा ब्राह्मणादबलीयानमित्रेभ्यो वै स बलीयात् भवति । शतपथ V. 4. 4. 15.

therefore the brāhmaṇa sits down below the kṣatriya in the Rājasūya ' (Śatapatha 14. 4. 1. 23 = Br. Up. I. 4. 11). In the Atharvaveda several verses occur which declare the harm that results from disrespecting or injuring a brāhmaṇa or from robbing him of his cow. 'He who regards brāhmaṇa as food drinks of the poison of Taimāta; he who injures a brāhmaṇa, the relative of the gods, does not attain to the world of pitṛs' (Atharvaveda V. 18. 4 and 13). 'Those who spat on a brāhmaṇa or those who sent to him mucus remain biting the hair in the midst of a stream by their mouth; that kingdom sinks as water sinks a shattered vessel, where' they injure a brāhmaṇa; that wicked act strikes that kingdom⁹⁸ (Atharvaveda V. 19. 3 and 8).

The stories of king Kārtavīrya and Viśvāmitra who respectively carried off the cows of Jamadagni and Vasiṣṭha narrated in the Mahābhārata (Śānti 49 for Kārtavīrya; Ādi. 175 for Viśvāmitra) and the Purāṇas show how several kings were high-handed and treated brāhmaṇas with no respect whatever. It appears that even the wives of brāhmaṇas were not quite safe at the hands of kings. 'The chamberlain (kṣatr) of that king in whose kingdom the wife of a brāhmaṇa is thoughtlessly put under restraint does not march in front of cooking vessels with a golden ornament on his neck'⁹⁹ (Atharva V. 17. 14). The somewhat mystical hymn (Rg. X. 109) where 'brahmajāyā' figures prominently probably hints at the same fact (viz. the kidnapping of the wives of brāhmaṇas).

The Tai. S. says that 'the vaiśya indeed sacrifices, being desirous of cattle' and that the gods having been defeated were reduced to the condition of being the vaiśyas or 'viś of *asuras*';¹⁰⁰ 'the vaiśya among men, cows among beasts, therefore they are to be enjoyed (to be eaten, to be subsisted upon) by others; they were produced from the receptacle of food; therefore they exceed others in numbers'.¹⁰¹ The Tai. Br. says 'the vaiśya class is

98. ये ब्राह्मणं प्रत्यष्टीवन् ये वास्मिन् शुक्लमीषिरे। अश्वस्ते मध्ये कुल्यायाः केशान् खादन्त आसते ॥ तद्वै राष्ट्रमाश्रवति नावं भिक्षासिवादिदम्। ब्राह्मणं यत्र हिंसन्ति तद्वाङ्गं हन्ति दुच्छुना ॥ अथर्व V. 19. 3 and 8.

99. नास्य क्षत्ता निष्कग्रीवः सूनात्तामेत्यग्रतः। यस्मिन् राष्ट्रे निरुध्यते ब्रह्मजायाऽचित्या ॥ अथर्ववेद V. 17. 14.

100. पशुकामः खलु वैश्यो यजते। तै. सं. II. 5. 10.2: ते देवाः पराजिग्याना असुराणां वैश्यमुपायन्। तै. सं. II. 3. 7. 1.

101. वैश्यो मनुष्याणां गावः पशूनां तस्मात्त आद्या अन्नधानादव्यसृज्यन्त तस्माद्भूयोऽस्येभ्यः। तै. सं. VII. 1. 1. 5

said to have been born from ṛk verses, they declare the Yajurveda as the origin of the kṣatriya, the Sāmaveda is indeed the source of brāhmaṇas'.¹⁰² The same Brāhmaṇa further says 'the viś go away from (reside separately from) the brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas'. The Tāndya Br. says¹⁰² 'Hence the vaiśya, though being eaten (i. e. subsisted upon) by others is not exhausted, since he was created from the *prajanana* (from the sexual parts of Prajāpati); therefore he has numerous cattle, he has all the gods (as his patrons) and was produced with the Jagatī metre, his season is the rains, therefore he is to be eaten by the brāhmaṇa and the rājanya, since he was created as lower (than those two classes)'. The Śat. Br. (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 335) says 'He thus assigns to the Maruts a share therein after Indra, whereby he makes the people (viś) subser-vient and obedient to the nobility'.¹⁰⁴ According to the Ait. Br. 35. 3 the vaiśya is one who is the food of others, who pays taxes to others. These passages show that vaiśyas were entitled to sacrifice, reared cattle, were far more numerous than the other two classes, they had to bear the brunt of taxation, they lived apart from brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas and were obedient to them.

The system of the four varṇas had taken such deep roots in the period when the Brāhmaṇa works were composed, that we often meet with Vedic passages saying that it extended even to the gods, Agni and Brhaspati being the brāhmaṇas among gods; Indra, Varuṇa, Soma, Yama being the kṣatriyas; Vasus, Rudras, the Viśve Devas and Maruts being the viś, and Pūṣan being the śūdra.¹⁰⁵ Similarly it is said 'the brāhmaṇa is really spring, the kṣatriya summer, and the viś are the rainy season.'

102. ऋग्यो जातं वैद्यं वर्णमाहुः । यजुर्वेदं क्षत्रियस्याहुर्वीनिम् । सामवेदो ब्राह्मणानां प्रसूतिः । तै. ब्रा. III. 12. 9 ; तस्माद् ब्रह्मणश्च क्षत्राच्च विशोन्यतोऽपक्रमिणीः । तै. ब्रा. I. 6. 5.

103. तस्माद्वैद्योऽद्यमानो न क्षीयते प्रजननाद्धि सुष्टस्तस्माद् बहुपशुर्वैश्वदेवो हि जागती वर्षा ह्यस्यदुस्तस्माद् ब्राह्मणस्य च राजन्यस्य चाद्योऽधरो हि सुष्टः । ताण्ड्यमहाभा. VI. 1. 10.

104. अथैतदिन्द्रमेवानु मरुत आभजन्ति । तत्क्षत्रायैवैतद्विशं कृतानुकरामनुवर्तमानं करोति । शतपथ IV. 3. 3. 10.

105. Vide Maitrāyaṇi Sam. I. 10. 13, Śatapatha 14. 4. 2. 23-25 which is the same as Br. Up. I. 4. 11-13, Kauṣītaki Br. 9. 5 and Ait. Br. (34. 5). Compare शान्तिपर्व 208. 23-25 for Adityas being kṣatriyas, Maruts as vaiśyas, Aśvins as śūdras.

That there were other professions and crafts with specific names (which in later times at least became castes) even in the times of the Samhitās is quite clear. The Rg. speaks of vaptā (barber) in X. 142.4, taṣṭā (a carpenter or maker of chariots) in Rg. I. 61.4, VII. 32.20, IX. 112.1, X. 119.5; tvaṣṭā (a carpenter) in VIII. 102.8; bhiṣak (medicine man) in IX. 112.1 and 3, karmāra or karmāra (iron-smith) in X. 72.2 and IX. 112.2, carmamna (tanner) in Rg. VIII. 5.38.

The Atharvaveda mentions rathakāra (III. 5.6), karmāra (III. 5.6) and sūta (III. 5.7). In the Tai. S. (IV. 5.4.2)¹⁰⁶ mention is made of kṣatr (royal chamberlain or doorkeeper), saṁgrahitr (treasurer), takṣan (carpenter) and rathakāra (maker of chariots), kulāla (potter), karmāra, puñjiṣṭa (fowler), niśāda, iṣukṛt (maker of arrows), dhanvakṛt (maker of bows), mṛgayu (hunter) and śvani (those who lead packs of hounds). These also occur in the Vājasaneyasaṁhitā 16. 26-28 and these and a few more in Vāj. S. 30.5-13 and in Kāthaka Samhitā 17.13. In the Tai. Br. (III. 4.1 and the following anuvākas that deal with Puruṣamedha) we have āyogū, māgadha (bard), sūta, śailūṣa (actor), rebha, bhīmala, rathakāra, takṣan, kaulāla, karmāra, maṇikāra, vapa (sower or barber), iṣukāra, dhanvakāra, jyākāra (maker of bow-string), rajjusarga, mṛgayu, śvani surākāra (vintner), ayastāpa (heater of iron or copper), kitava (gambler), bidalakāra (worker in wicker-work), kaṇṭhakakāra. The Śatapatha Br. XI. 8.1. speaks of kaulāla-cakra (the potter's wheel). The Tai. Br. III. 8.5. mentions also rājaputra ugra. The Śatapatha (S. B. E. Vol. 44 p. 397) speaks of Marutta Āvikṣita as an āyogava king. This latter is a pratiloma caste according to the dharmasūtras (vide below). Whether in the Śatapatha that word has the same sense is doubtful. The Tai. S. I. 8.9.1-2 mentions among the ' ratnas ' (the jewels), the sūta, grāmaṇi, kṣatr, saṁgrahitr, bhāgadugha (collector of taxes), akṣāvāpa (superintendent of gambling). Vide also Tai. Br. I. 7.3. In the Tāndya Brāhmaṇa (19.1.4) it is said that ' eight brave persons hold up the kingdom viz. the king's brother, the king's son, the purohita, the crowned queen, the sūta, the grāmaṇi, kṣatr and saṁgrahitr '. Therefore it looks likely that kṣatr and saṁgrahitr were high officers of state and not castes. In the Śat. Br. XIII. 4. 1. 5 among the

106. नमः क्षत्रभ्यः संग्रहीतृभ्यश्च वो नमो नमस्तक्षभ्यो रथकारेभ्यश्च वो नमो नमः कुलालेभ्यः कर्मारेभ्यश्च वो नमो नमः पुञ्जिष्टेभ्यो निषादेभ्यश्च वो नमो नम इषुकृद्भ्यो धन्व-कुट्टभ्यश्च वो नमो नमो मृगयुभ्यः श्वनिभ्यश्च वो नमः । तै. सं. IV. 5. 4. 2.

guards of the horse let loose in the *Aśvamedha* there were 'a hundred sons of *ksātra-saṁgrahītr*s carrying clubs'. As the word '*ksātra*' is prefixed to '*saṁgrahītr*' it follows that '*saṁgrahītr*s' were officers who may have belonged to any *varṇa*. In the same passage mention is made of a hundred guardians who were the sons of *sūtagrāmaṇis*. In another passage of the same *brāhmaṇa* (XIII. 2.2.18) the *sūtas* and *grāmaṇis* are said to be no kings and yet are *rājakṛt* (i. e. king-makers).¹⁰⁷ This means probably that they are the principal persons on whose support the king depends. The *Sat. Br.* V. 4. 4.15-19 arranges *brāhmaṇa*, king, king's brother, *sūta* or *sthapati*, *grāmaṇi*, *sajāta* in a descending scale of powerfulness. So the *sūta* appears to have been originally an important officer. It is hardly possible to say with assurance that all these had become petrified into castes in the modern sense, particularly when several persons associated with these in the *Vāj. S.* and elsewhere were not castes such as the thief (*taskara*), the impotent (*klība*), humpbacked (*kubja*), dwarf (*vāmana*); but most of the avocations and crafts referred to above have corresponding castes and subcastes for hundreds of years. It is therefore possible to say that in the times of the *Samhitās* and *Brāhmaṇas* these were groups founded on occupations that had become castes or were in process of developing into castes. The *Tāṇḍya Br.* speaks of *Kirātas* (who were and are non-Āryan and were aboriginal tribes).¹⁰⁸ The *Vāj. S.* (30. 17) speaks of *Paulkasa* in connection with *bibhatsā* (nauseating filth) and of *cāṇḍāla* (in 30.21) in connection with *vāyu* (wind). The *paulkasa* and *cāṇḍāla* occur in *Tai. Br.* (III. 4. 14 and III. 4. 17 (respectively). In the *Chāndogya Up.* (V. 10.7)¹⁰⁹ the *cāṇḍāla* is ranked with the dog and the boar. 'Therefore even if one knowing thus were to give the leavings of his food to a *cāṇḍāla* that would in his case be an offering made into the

107. यथा वै राज्ञोऽराजानो राजकृतः सुतग्रामण्यः । इतपथ XIII. 2. 2. 18.

108. Vide ताण्ड्य ब्रा. 13. 12. 5, वाज. सं. 30. 16, अथर्ववेद X. 4. 14, तै. ब्रा. III. 4. 12 for किरात.

109. अभ्याशो ह यस्ते कपुयां योनिमापयेरन् श्वयोर्नि वा सुकरयोर्नि वा चण्डाल-योर्नि वा । छा. V. 10. 7. There were strict rules about giving one's *ucchiṣṭa* to another. *Āp. Dh. S.* (I. 11. 31. 25-26) did not allow a *brāhmaṇa* to give his *ucchiṣṭa* to one not a *brāhmaṇa*, unless certain rather obnoxious things were done to it. *Manu* IV. 80 forbids the giving of *ucchiṣṭa* to a *sūdra* (who is not a dependant) while *Manu* X. 125 allows it to be given to a *sūdra* who is a dependant.

Self as Fire'—Chāndogya V. 24. 4. This shows that the cāṇḍāla was the lowest in the social scale. 'Just as a pāśya or vaideha, or the son of an ugra, after having made his bow strung &c.'—Br. Up. III. 8.2. In the Br. Up. IV. 3.22 mention is made of both cāṇḍāla and paulkasa and in IV. 3.37 it is said¹¹⁰ that 'just as when a king pays a visit, the ugras, pratyenasas (thief catchers), the sūtas and headmen of the village make arrangements for him with food and drink and with pavilions.' Here ugras seem to be a group of nobles subordinate to the king. In later literature ugra is the offspring of a kṣatriya from a śūdra woman (Yāj. I. 91). In the Rg. X. 97. 12 the word ugra occurs 'You destroy disease just as an ugra who is a mediator or arbitrator (removes dispute).' What ugra means here cannot be said with certainty. It may only mean a 'formidable chief or king.'

The rathakāra and niśāda deserve a passing notice. The Tai. Br. I. 1. 4 after stating that the brāhmaṇa should consecrate sacred fires in the spring, the kṣatriya in summer, the vaiśya in autumn, ordains that the rathakāra should consecrate sacred fires in the rainy season. The question arises whether the rathakāra is a member of the three higher castes who has taken in economic distress to the profession of making chariots or is a person belonging to a caste other than the three higher varṇas. Jaimini in his Pūrvamīmāṃsā-sūtra (VI. 1. 44-50) discusses this question and establishes¹¹¹ that the rathakāra is a member of a caste other than the three higher varṇas, that he has on account of the express words in the śruti the privilege to consecrate sacred fires with vedic mantras, that the mantra for the consecration of rathakāras is 'rbhūṇām tvā' (Tai. Br. I. 1. 4) and that the rathakāras are the caste called Saudhanvana which is neither śūdra nor one of the three higher ones, but is slightly inferior to the three higher varṇas. Viśvarūpa¹¹² (on

110. Pāṇini VI. 2. 60 teaches the accent of the word प्रत्येनस् when compounded with राजन्. According to Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 29) ugra is an anuloma caste sprung from a brāhmaṇa father and śūdra wife.

111. वचनाद्व्यकारस्याधानेऽस्य सर्वशेषत्वात् । सौधन्वनास्तु हीनत्वान्मन्त्र-वर्णात्यतीयेरत् । पूर्वमी. VI. 1. 44 and 50.

112. यत्तु स्मृत्यन्तरे रथकारस्योपनयनस्मरणं तद्व्याधानाधिकृतत्वाद् भ्रान्तेरित्यवसेयम् । विश्वस्व on या. I. 10. The बौ. सु. II. 5. 6. has वसन्ते ब्राह्मणमुपनयीत ग्रीष्मे राजन्यं शरदि वैश्यं वर्षासु रथकारमिति । . Vide भारद्वाजयज्ञा I. 1 for the same rule. क्षत्रिय-वैश्यानुलोमानन्तरजोत्यक्षौ रथकारस्तस्य चेज्यादानोपनयनसंस्कारक्रिया अश्वपतिश्च रथ-सूत्रवास्तुविद्याभ्ययनवर्तिता च । शङ्ख quoted in संस्कारप्रकाश p. 399 which says that this रथकार is different.

Yāj. I. 10) notices that in some *smṛti* the *rathakāra* though not belonging to the three higher *varṇas*, was allowed the privilege of *upanayana*, but adds that this dictum of the *smṛti* is due to mistake, it being misled by the fact that he is allowed the privilege of *ādhāna* ¹¹³ (consecration of sacred fires). In modern times the members of the carpenter caste in certain parts of the Deccan at least are in the habit of performing the *upanayana* and wearing the sacred thread.

With reference to an *iṣṭi* offered to Rudra a Vedic text says 'one should make a *niṣādashapati* perform this *iṣṭi*.' The *Pūrvamīmāṃsā sūtra* ¹¹⁴ (VI. 1. 51-52) discusses the question whether this authorises a *niṣāda* who is himself a chieftain or a chieftain (who is a member of the three higher *varṇas*) of *niṣādas*. The established conclusion is that the *iṣṭi* is to be performed by a *niṣāda* who is a chieftain though he be beyond the pale of the three *varṇas*, as the *Karmadhāraya* compound is the proper way of dissolving the compound and not the genitive *Tatpuruṣa*. The *Ait. Br.* (37. 7) says ¹¹⁵ 'just as the *niṣādas*, or *selagas* (thieves) or evil-doers seize a wealthy man in a forest and throwing him in a well run away with his wealth.' The *Śāṅkhāyana Br.* (25. 15) allows one who had performed the *Viśvajit* sacrifice (in which everything is given away) to stay in a settlement of *niṣādas* whose food is the lowest that he is allowed to take. The *Kātyāyanaśrauta-sūtra* (I. 1. 12-14) says ¹¹⁶ that 'the chieftain who is a *niṣāda* can offer a *caru* of *Gavedhukā* corn to Rudra, but this offering is to be made in ordinary fire (and not in the fires consecrated with Vedic mantras) i. e. the permission to offer *Raudra iṣṭi* does not entitle him to perform Vedic consecration of fire (*ādhāna*). But according to *Satyāśādhā* ¹¹⁷-kalpa III. 1 both the *niṣāda* and the *rathakāra* are entitled to perform *Agnihotra* and *Darsa-pūrnāmāsa*.

113. वसन्तो ब्राह्मणस्य ग्रीष्मो राजन्यस्य हेमन्तो वा शरद् वैश्यस्य वर्षा रथकारस्य । आप. श्रौ. सू. V. 3. 18; vide कात्यायनश्रौत I. 1. 9-10 also.

114. स्थपतिर्निषादः स्याच्छब्दसामर्थ्यात् । पूर्वमी. VI. 1. 51.

115. यथा ह वा इदं निषादा वा सेलगा वा पापकृतो वा वित्तवन्तं पुरुषं गृहीत्वा कर्तमन्वस्य वित्तमादाय द्रवन्ति । ऐ. ब्रा. 37. 7. The com. on Āśv. Śr. (Uttara-śāṅka IV. 7. 6 explains सेलगाः as सर्पेणोन्मत्ताः (?).

116. निषादः स्थपतिर्गवेषुकैधिक्कृतः । वावकीर्णिनो गर्दभेज्या । लौकिके । कात्या. श्रौ. I. 1. 12-14.

117. निषादरथकारयोरधानादग्निहोत्रं दर्शपूर्णमासौ च नियम्येते । सत्या-पादकल्प III. 1.

The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹¹⁸ narrates that Viśvāmitra cursed his senior fifty sons, when they did not agree to his proposal to treat Śunaśēpa (Devarāta) as his son, that they would associate with the lowest castes and that they became the Andhras, Puṇdras, Śabaras, Pulindas and Mūtibas who are among the lowest of society and are mostly composed of *dasyus*. It is probably owing to this legend that the Manusmṛti¹¹⁹ (X. 43-45) is prepared to regard the Paundrakas, the Oḍras, Dravidas, Kāmbojas, Yavanas, Śakas, Pāradas, Pahlavas, Cīnas, Kirātas, Daradas and Khasas as being originally ksatriya castes, but later on reduced to the position of śūdras by the non-performance of Vedic saṁskāras (like upanayana) and by the absence of contact with brāhmaṇas. Manu further adds that the various castes that are outside the (influence of the) four varṇas are all known as *dasyus* whether they speak the language of Mlecchas or of Āryas.

One very important question is whether the theory of the four varṇas with their peculiar privileges and duties described in the dharmasūtras and other smṛtis was merely a theory even in the most ancient times. When the Puruṣasūkta of the R̥gveda speaks of Brāhmaṇa, Rājanya, Vaiśya and Śūdra or when the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa expressly says that they are four varṇas, it appears to me that they speak of facts existing in their times and not merely of a theory which was to be striven for as an ideal. Smṛti writers try to place all their dicta in the frame-work of the varṇas because the four varṇas and their duties and privileges had been more or less clearly defined in the times of the Vedas and Brāhmaṇas, which according to the authors of the smṛtis were śruti, eternal and infallible. They tried to approximate the state of society existing in their times to the varṇas which they held were of hoary antiquity. But there is nothing to show that the same difficulties were felt by the authors of the Vedic hymns and the Brāhmaṇas. The manner in which they refer to the privileges and disabilities of the several varṇas have such a deep ring of actuality that one must concede that the varṇas spoken of in them represented the

118. तानशुन्याजिह्वान्तांश्वः प्रजा भक्षयेति । त एतेन्द्राः पुण्ड्राः शबराः पुलिन्दाः मूतिवा इत्युदन्त्या बहवो वैश्वामित्रा दस्यूनां सुयिष्टाः । ऐ. ब्रा. 33.6.

119. शनकैस्तु क्रियालापोदिमाः क्षात्रयजातयः । वृषलत्व गता लाक ब्राह्मणादशनन च । पौण्ड्रकाश्चौद्रविडाः काम्बोजा यवनाः शकाः । पारदा गह्वर्वाश्चीनाः किराताः द्रव्वाः खशाः । सुखबाहुरुपजानां या लोके जातयो बहिः । म्लेच्छवाचश्चार्यवाचः सर्वे ते दस्यवः स्मृताः ॥ मनु X. 43-45.

real divisions of society at least to a very great extent, if not cent percent.

The preceding discussion renders the following propositions most probable ;

(1) that in the earliest times about which we have literary records there were only two varṇas, the āryas and their opponents the *dasyus* or *dāsas*; that the difference between the two was based on difference of colour and culture and was thus more or less racial and cultural ;

(2) that centuries before the saṃhitā period closed the *dasyus* had been conquered and were given a position subservient to the āryas ;

(3) that the śūdras were the *dasyus* so subjugated and made subservient ;

(4) that the spirit of exclusiveness and pride of superiority existing among the āryas with reference to *dasyus* soon extended to groups among the āryas themselves ;

(5) that by the time of the Brāhmaṇa Literature, brāhmaṇas (men supposed to be devoted to learning and priesthood), kṣatriyas (kings, noblemen and some warriors) and vaiśyas (the artisans and common people) had become separated into groups more or less dependent on birth and that the brāhmaṇa¹²⁰ had come to be regarded as superior to the kṣatriya by the fact of birth ;

(6) that even such low castes as cāṇḍālas and paulkāsas had been evolved long before the end of the Vedic period ;

(7) that owing to cultural advance, division of labour arose and numerous arts and crafts had been developed and they were in process of contributing to the complexity of the system by creating numerous sub-castes based upon occupations ;

(8) that besides the four varṇas intermediate castes like the rathakāra had been evolved ;

(9) that there were certain non-Āryan tribes which were supposed to have been originally kṣatriyas but fallen later on.

120. That this theory of four varṇas was well-known to Buddhist literary works is shown by Fick chap. II. p. 17 (the only difference being that in the Buddhist works the kṣatriya is put first and the brāhmaṇa after him).

The close of the Vedic period is here taken as being not later than about 1000 B. C. How much earlier it may be placed it is not possible to say.

The following is a list of persons engaged in professions and crafts, which had probably become castes or were in the process of becoming castes, before the close of the Vedic period, as seen from the Vāj. S., Tai. S. and Tai. Br., Kāthaka Sam. (17. 13), the Atharva-veda, the Tāndya Br. (III. 4.), the Ait. Br., the Chāndogya and the Br. Up. The meaning of some of the words is not quite clear and it is possible that some in the list were not at all castes or professions. They are arranged in the alphabetical order of Sanskrit (though transliterated). The meanings of most of them have been given above. Where the meaning is doubtful a question mark has been made.

Ajāpāla (goatherd)	Dāśa
Andhra	Dhanuṣkāra
Ayastāpa	or
Ayogū or Āyogū	Dhanvakāra
Avipāla (keeper of ewes)	or
Ānda (?)	Dhanvakṛt
Iṣukāra	Dhaivara
Ugra	Niṣāda
Kaṇṭakakāra or Kaṇṭaki-	or
kāri (in Vāj. S.)	Naiṣāda
Karmāra	Puṁścalu
Kāri (dancer?)	Puñjiṣṭa
Kitava	or
Kirāta	Pauñjiṣṭha
Kiṇāśa (cultivator?)	Puṇḍra
Kulāla or Kaulāla	Pulinda
Kevarta	Paulkasa
Kośakāri (blower of bellows)	Bainda (catching fish in nets)
Kṣatṛ	Bhiṣak
Gopāla	Bhīmala (timid?)
Carmamna	Maṇikāra
Cāṇḍāla	Māgadha
Jambhaka (?)	Mārgāra
Jyākāra	Mūṭiba
Takṣan	Mṛgayu

Maināla (catcher of fish ?)	Vidalakārī or Bidala-
Rajayitri (dyer)	Vrātya
Rajjusarga or-sarja	Śabara
Rathakāra	Śābalya (?)
Rājaputra	Śailūṣa
Rebha (?)	Śvanin (or Śvanita)
Vaṁśanartin	Samgrahitr
Vapa (barber)	Surākāra
Vāṇija	Sūta
Vāsaḥ-palpūli (a washer- woman)	Selaga Hiraṇyakāra

Several centuries before the Christian era there were several castes. This follows not only from the dharmaśāstras but also from the ancient Buddhist works and from the meagre existing fragments of the work of Megasthenes on India. Though Megasthenes was confused in his statements about the caste system as prevalent in his day, some propositions are clearly deducible therefrom. He states (pp. 40 ff) that the whole population of India was divided into seven castes, (1) philosophers, (2) husbandmen, (3) neatherds and shepherds, (4) artisans, (5) military, (6) overseers, (7) councillors and assessors. Out of these 1 and 5 correspond to brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas, 2-3 to vaiśyas, 4 to śūdras; 6th and 7th correspond to *adhyakṣas* and *amātyas* (as in Kauṭilya's Arthaśāstra) and are not really castes but occupations. He probably regards them as castes because the offices of the *adhyakṣas* and *amātyas* were generally hereditary or at least he gathered that they were so. Megasthenes' further statement (pp. 43-44) that 'no one is allowed to marry out of his own caste or to exercise any calling or art except his own' shows that the prevailing tendency was that caste had become exclusive and mostly occupational in his day, though there must have been exceptions of which he was not informed.

The ancient writers on dharmaśāstra strive very hard to account for the bewildering ramifications of the caste system from the four varṇas that were spoken of in the *śruti* (revelation). There is unanimity on the theory that the numerous castes actually found in the country arose from the unions of males of different varṇas with women belonging to varṇas differing from their own. The divergences (and they are

many) among the several smṛtikāras relate only to details. The smṛti writers had before them the hoary theory of four varnas vouched for by infallible Vedic authority, but they were at the same time quite cognisant of the realities in society viz. the separate existence of numerous castes and sub-castes that had varying claims as regards social status and that were based in popular estimation on birth alone. Therefore, when one criticizes the smṛti view of the derivation of numerous castes from the mixture or confusion (*samkara*) of the four varnas as purely hypothetical and imaginary, the criticism is true only partially. The smṛtis were composed in different parts of India at different times and they were meant to supply a popular want, to guide the people and to reflect the prevailing state of society and popular feeling. Therefore, it must be admitted that the numerous castes mentioned in the smṛtis did exist at the time of the smṛtis, that the social status of the several castes might have varied from country to country or from epoch to epoch, that the peculiar avocations and means of livelihood assigned to the various castes reflected the real state of things. The element of hypothesis and speculation lies only in the theory of a particular sub-caste having sprung from the union of two persons belonging to two particular varnas or castes.¹²¹ This description of the origin of the several castes was only indicative of the author's view or of the accepted view about the social status of those castes in particular localities. There is here, as a matter of fact, great divergence of views among the several authors.

In the first place all writers on dharmaśāstra start with the propositions viz. (1) that the four *varnas*, brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya, vaiśya and śūdra, are arranged in a descending scale of social status; and (2) that marriage is or was permissible between a male of a higher varna with a woman of a lower varna, but the union of a woman of a higher varna with a male of varna lower than her own is reprehensible and not permitted. There is a third proposition advanced by many writers that a man belongs to a particular *varna* or *jāti* by birth only i. e. if born in lawful wedlock of parents both of whom belong to that varna

121. Śāntiparva (297. 7-9) says 'चतुर्णामेव वर्णानामगमः पुरुषवर्षम् । अतोऽन्ये त्वत्तिरिक्ता ये ते वै संकरजाः स्मृताः ॥ क्षत्रियातिरिचाम्बुडा उग्रा वैदेहकास्तथा । श्वपाकाः पुलकसाः स्तेना निषादाः सूतमागधाः । अयोगाः करणा व्रात्याश्चाण्डालाश्च नराधिप । एते चतुर्वर्णो वर्णेभ्यो जायन्ते वै परस्परात् ॥'

or jāti.¹²² This is the view held by all medieval writers and digests and it is expressly said that a man belongs to a caste by birth and no actions of his can alter that fact, that several castes are like the species of animals and that caste attaches to the body and not to the soul (vide Sūtasamhitā). When a male of a higher varṇa marries a woman of a lower varṇa, the marriage is said to be *anuloma* (lit. with the hair, in the natural order) and the offspring is said to be anuloma; when there is a union of a woman of a higher varṇa with a male of a lower varṇa, it is said to be *pratiloma* (against the hair, i. e. against the natural or proper order) and the children of the union are said to be *pratiloma*. These two words *anuloma* and *pratiloma* (as applied to marriage or progeny) hardly ever occur in the vedic literature. In the Br. Up. (II. 1. 15) and Kauṣītaki Br. Up. IV. 18 (quoted in note 89 above) the word 'pratiloma' is applied to the procedure adopted by a brāhmaṇa of going to a kṣatriya for knowledge about *brahman*. From this it may possibly be inferred that *pratiloma* and *anuloma* might have been employed with reference to marriages also (in the days of the Upaniṣad). Pāṇini (IV. 4. 28) teaches the formation of words from *anuloma* and *pratiloma*. They occur in Gautama (IV. 14-15), Baud. Dh. S. (I. 8. 8), Vasiṣṭha (18. 7), Manu (X. 13), Yāj. (I. 95) and other smṛti works.

One important question is whether the theory of *anuloma* or *pratiloma* castes presupposes a marriage or only a union (outside marriage) of a man and a woman. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 6. 13. 1, 3-4) lays down¹²³ that a man must marry a virgin of his own varṇa with the rites prescribed by the *śāstras* and only the son born of such a marriage is entitled to the privileges and occupation of his father, that sexual intercourse with a woman who has been married by another or on whom the proper ceremonies of marriage are not performed or who

122. मनु. X. 5, विष्णुधर्मसूत्रे 16. 1; या. I. 90. The mīmāṃsaka position is stated by the तन्त्रवार्तिक (on जै. I. 2. 1) 'न त्वाचारनिमित्तवर्णविभागे प्रमाण किञ्चित् । न तपआदीनां सद्युदायो ब्राह्मण्यं न तज्जनितः संस्कारः न तदभिस्यंग्या जातिः, किं तर्हि मातापितृजातिज्ञानाभिव्यंग्या प्रत्यक्षसमधिगम्या ।'; the सूतसंहिता (शिवमाहात्म्यखण्ड 12. 51-52) says सर्वेषां जन्मना जातिर्नान्यथा कर्मकोटिभिः पश्चादीनां यथा जातिर्जन्मनैव न चान्यथा । सापि स्थूलस्य देहस्य भौतिकस्य न चात्मनः ॥; जन्मनैव महाभागो ब्राह्मणो नाम जायते । शातातप quoted in आह्निकप्र. p. 452.

123. सर्वर्णापूर्वशास्त्रविहितायां यथर्तुं गच्छतः पुत्रास्तेषां कर्मभिः सम्बन्धः । पूर्ववत्याम-संस्कृतायां वर्णान्तरे च सैथुने दोषः । तत्रापि दोषवान् पुत्र एव । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 13. 1, 3 and 4.

belongs to another caste is condemned and that the son (and not the daughter) born of such an union is condemned (through the sin of the parents). So Āpastamba looked with disfavour even on marriages called *anuloma*. He is entirely silent about anuloma and pratiloma castes. It is no doubt true that most ancient writers like Gautama (IV. 1), Vasiṣṭha (I. 24), Manu (III. 12-13), Yāj. (I. 55 and 57) prescribe that a person should by preference marry a girl of his own varṇa but also allow the marriage of a person with a girl of another varṇa lower than his own. Yāj. (I. 92) expressly says that the six *anuloma* castes, mūrdhāvasikta, ambasṭha, niṣāda, māhiṣya, ugra, and karaṇa are so called only when they are the offspring of women married by men of higher varṇas. Manu (X. 41) says that the six anuloma castes are entitled to the rites (saṃskāras like upanayana) performed for *dvijas*, but that the pratiloma castes are like śūdras (i. e. even when a pratiloma caste springs from a brāhmaṇa woman and a kṣatriya or vaiśya male they cannot have upanayana and other rites of *dvijas* performed for them, though both parents are *dvijas*). Kauṭilya¹²⁴ (III. 7) also says that all pratilomas except cāṇḍālas are like śūdras; Viṣṇu says that they are condemned by all Āryas. Devala¹²⁵ (quoted by Parāśara-mādhaviya I. 2. p. 122) says that pratilomas are outside the pale of the system of varṇas and are *patita*. The Smṛtyarthasāra p. 13 says that anuloma sons and those born of the mūrdhāvasikta and other anuloma castes are *dvijātis* and are entitled to saṃskāras as *dvijātis*. Commentators like Kullūka (on Manu X. 11) say that, as no marriage is legally possible between a woman of a higher varṇa and a male of a lower varṇa, all the pratilomas are born outside lawful wedlock. Gautama (IV. 20) says that all pratilomas are *dharmaḥina*, which is interpreted by the Mit. on Yāj. III. 262 as meaning that they cannot have upanayana and similar saṃskāras of *dvijas* performed for them, though they are amenable to the rules of morality and entitled to perform vratas and *prāyaścittas*. Vasiṣṭha, Baudhāyana and several others do not make it clear whether, when they speak of *pratilomas*, they contemplate offspring of legal

124. शुद्धसधर्माणो वा अन्यत्र चण्डालेभ्यः । कौटिल्य III. 7; प्रतिलोमास्त्वार्थ-विगर्हिताः । विष्णु 16. 3.

125. तेषां सर्वजजाः श्रेष्ठस्तेभ्योऽन्वगज्जलमजाः । अन्तराला बहिर्वर्णाः पतिताः प्रतिलो-मजाः ॥ देवल quoted in परा. मा. I part 2 p. 122; एतेऽज्जलमजाः पुत्राः संस्कार्याः शुद्धिजातयः । तथा मूर्धावसिकादिजातिजात्र च द्विजातयः ॥ रसुत्यर्थसार p. 13.

marriages or only of illegitimate and adulterous unions. But it will be seen from the list appended below that Ūśanas and Vaikhāṇasa almost always make a distinction between the caste assigned to the offspring of the union of parents of different varṇas, according as there is a marriage between the two or it is only a clandestine, illegitimate or adulterous union. For example, Ūśanas says¹²⁶ that when there is a marriage between a kṣatriya male and a brāhmaṇa female, the offspring is called sūta, while the offspring of a clandestine union between a brāhmaṇa woman and a kṣatriya male was called rathakāra. So these two authors held that there could be a legal marriage when a woman of a higher varṇa married a male of a lower varṇa.¹²⁷ There were several other works like the Sūtasamhitā (Śivamāhātmyakhanda chap. 12. 12-48) where a similar distinction is made between the children of marriages and clandestine unions. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 90 says that such progeny as kuṇḍa and golaka (Manu III. 174), kāṇina, sahoḍhaja (who are all not due to intercourse in wedlock) are different from savarṇa, anuloma and pratiloma and are to be treated as śūdras and that the kṣetraja son is to be treated as in a different category (since *niyoga* is allowed by the smṛtis and by the usage of śiṣṭas) and belongs to the caste of his mother. Aparārka (on Yāj. I. 92 p. 118) does not accept this view and holds that even kāṇina and sahoḍha may be held to be brāhmaṇas (if the begetter can be proved to have been a brāhmaṇa); while Viśvarūpa on Yāj. II. 133 says that kāṇina and gūḍhaja must be deemed to belong to the mother's caste as the begetter may not be known and that sahoḍhaja (II. 135) is also to be so treated. These several kinds of secondary sons will be treated under inheritance.

A few words must be said about the word *jāti*. The idea of varṇa was as we have seen based originally on race, culture, character and profession. It takes account mainly of the moral and intellectual worth of man and is a system of classes which appears more or less natural. The ideal of varṇa even in the smṛtis lays far more emphasis on duties, on a high standard of effort for the community or society rather than on the rights and privileges of birth. The system of jātis (castes) lays all emphasis on

126. वृषाद् ब्राह्मणकन्यायायां विवाहेषु समन्वयात् । जातः सुतोऽत्र निर्दिष्टः प्रतिलोम-विधिर्दिष्टः ॥ ब्राह्मण्यां क्षत्रियाच्चौर्याद्व्यक्तारः प्रकीर्तितः । उशनस् vv. 2-5.

127. Vide Yāj. I. 95 which says that *pratilomajas* are *asat* (condemned) and *anulomajas* are *sat* (good) i. e. entitled to the *saṁskāras*.

birth and heredity and tends to create the mentality of clinging to privileges without trying to fulfil the obligations corresponding to such privileges. The word 'jāti' in the sense of caste hardly ever occurs in the vedic literature. In the Nirukta¹²⁸ (XII. 13) it is said 'after *agnicayana* (the building of the fire altar), a man should not approach a *rāmā* (for sexual intercourse); *rāmā* is so called because she is approached only for pleasure and not for (accumulation of) merit; she is of a dark caste'. Here the word *kṛṣṇajātiyā* occurs with reference to a woman of the śūdra caste. Almost these very words occur in Vasistha (18. 17-18)¹²⁹ where for *kṛṣṇajātiyā* the word *kṛṣṇavarṇā* is substituted. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 56 (yad-ucyate etc.)¹³⁰ quotes these words as a brāhmaṇa text, but there the word is *kṛṣṇavarṇīyā*. Therefore, the use of the word jāti in the sense of caste can be traced back at least to the times of the Nirukta. Pāṇini (V. 4. 9)¹³¹ teaches the formation of words like 'brāhmaṇajātiya' derived from words ending in 'jāti' (in the sense of caste). The expression 'jātidharma' (rules of castes) occurs in Gautama XI. 20, Vasistha I. 17 and XIX. 7, Manu I. 118 and VIII. 41 and the word jāti (caste) occurs also in Āp. Dh. S. II. 3. 6. 1, II. 1. 2. 3, Manu (IV. 141, X. 11, 18, 40, 97), Yāj. (I. 95, 361, II. 69, 206, III. 213), Nārada (ṛṇādāna 288) and in the vārtika on Pāṇini IV. 1. 137. Varṇa and jāti are sometimes clearly distinguished as in Yāj. II. 69 and 206. But very often they are confounded. In Manu X. 27, 31 the word varṇa is used in the sense of mixed castes (*jātis*). Conversely the word jāti often appears to be used to indicate 'varṇa'. Vide Manu III. 15, VIII. 177, IX. 86 and 335, X. 41 and Yāj. I. 89 (in which latter *sajāti* appears to mean 'savarṇa').

Even when *anuloma* marriages were allowed there is no unanimity among the sages and the *smṛtis* as to the status of the progeny of such unions. Three different views are found. The first view is that if a male of one varṇa married a female of the varṇa immediately after it, the progeny belonged to the varṇa

128. अग्निं चित्वा न रामाहोपेयात् । रामा रमणायोपेयते न धर्माय कुण्डजातीया । निरुक्त XII. 13; the words 'अग्निं चित्वा ... वेयात्' occur in काठकसंहिता 21. 7.

129. नाग्निं चित्वा रामाहोपेयात् । कुण्डवर्णा या रामा रमणायैव न धर्माय । वसिष्ठ 18. 17-18.

130. कुण्डवर्णीया रामा रमणायैवोपेयत इति ब्राह्मणवाद् । विश्वरूप on या. I. 56.

131. जात्यन्ताच्छ बन्धुनि । पाणिनि V. 4. 9.

of the father; e. g. Baud. Dh. S.¹³² (I. 8. 6 and I. 9. 3) says that sons born to a person of a savarna wife or a wife of the varṇa next to his own are savarna i. e. the son of a brāhmaṇa from a wife of the kṣatriya varṇa is a brāhmaṇa. The Anuśāsana-parva 48. 4, Nārada (stripuṃsa 106) and Kautilya (III. 7) say the same. Gautama IV. 15 as interpreted by Haradatta appears to say that the off-spring of a brāhmaṇa from a kṣatriya wife is called savarna, but not the offspring of a kṣatriya male from a vaiśya wife or of a vaiśya male from a śūdra wife. Fick (pp. 54-57) shows that even according to the Bhaddasāla Jātaka 'the family of the mother does not matter; the family of the father alone is important'. The second view is that the progeny of *anuloma* unions is in status lower than the father, but higher than the mother; e. g. Manu X. 6 'sages declare the sons begotten by *dvijas* on wives of varṇas immediately next to theirs as similar (to the fathers, but not of the same varṇa with the fathers) but tainted by the inferiority of their mothers.' The third view (and this is the common view) is that the progeny of *anuloma* marriages is of the same varṇa as regards its privileges and obligations as the mother's; e. g. vide Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 2¹³³ and Śaṅkha (prose) quoted by the Mit. on Yāj I. 91 and Aparārka (p. 118). A classical echo of this view is found in the Śākuntala of Kālidāsa¹³⁴ where king Duṣyanta exclaims aside to himself 'would that this girl were born of the sage from a wife who was not savarna'. Medhātithi on Manu X. 6 says that Pāṇḍu, Dhṛtarāṣṭra and Vidura being kṣetraja sons took the caste of their mothers. The Mit. explains the words of Śaṅkha by saying that the offspring of *anuloma* marriages such as mūrdhāvasikta are not really different from kṣatriyas, that they have the same *samskāras* but they do not become kṣatriyas etc. and are dubbed by these names to indicate their mixed origin and come to form separate sub-castes. The *pratilomas*, as said above, are lower in status than any of the two parents.

132. तासु पुत्राः सवर्णानन्तरासु सवर्णाः । ब्राह्मणात्क्षत्रियायां ब्राह्मणः..... बौ. ध. I. 8. 6 and I. 9. 3; भार्याश्चतस्रो विप्रस्य द्वयोरात्मास्य जायते । अङ्गुलशसन 48. 4; सवर्णा ब्राह्मणीपुत्रः क्षत्रियायामनन्तरः । नारद (स्त्रीपुंस 106); ब्राह्मणक्षत्रिययोरनन्तरा-पुत्राः सवर्णा एकान्तरा असवर्णाः । कौटिल्य III. 7.

133. अङ्गुलोमास्तु मातृसवर्णाः । विष्णु 16. 2; 'ब्राह्मणेन क्षत्रियायास्त्यादितः क्षत्रिय एव भवति । क्षत्रियेण वैश्यायास्त्यादितो वैश्य एव भवति । वैश्येन शूद्रायास्त्यादितः शूद्र एव भवति' शङ्ख in मित्ता. on या. I. 91.

134. अपि नाम कुलपतेरियमसवर्णक्षेत्रसंभवा स्यात् । शाकुन्तल I.

The ancient dharmasūtras mention only a few mixed castes. Ap. Dh. S. mentions only cāṇḍāla, paulkasa and vaina. Gautama names five anuloma castes, six pratiloma, one and eight others according to the view of some. Baudhāyana adds to those mentioned by Gautama a few more viz. rathakāra, śvapāka, vaina and kukkuṭa. Vasiṣṭha names even a smaller number than Gautama and Baudhāyana. It is Manu (X) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. (XVI) that for the first time dilate upon the avocations of the mixed castes. Manu refers to 6 anuloma, 6 pratiloma and 20 doubly mixed castes and states the avocations of about 23; Yāj. names only 13 castes (other than the four varṇas). Uśanas names about 40 and gives their peculiar avocations. All the smṛtis taken together hardly mention more than about one hundred castes.

The number of primary *anulomas* is only six (vide Manu X. 10, Yāj. I. 91-92), but Manu names only three of them, viz. ambaṣṭha, niṣāda and ugra. The primary pratilomas also are six (vide Manu X. 11-12 and 16-17 and Yāj. I. 93-94) viz. sūta, vaidehaka, cāṇḍāla, māgadha, kṣatr, and āyogava. Further sub-castes are said to arise from the unions of the anulomas and pratilomas with the four varṇas and of the male of one anuloma and the female of another, from the union of pratilomas among themselves and from the union of a male or female of an *anuloma* caste and the female or male of a *pratiloma* caste. For example, Yāj. I. 95 defines rathakāra as the offspring of a māhiṣya male and a karāṇa female, i. e. it is a further mixture between two anuloma castes. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 95 says that upanayana and other *samskāras* are performed for the offspring of anuloma persons marrying among themselves. The Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 13) says the same¹³⁵. Similarly Manu X. 15 says that āvṛta and ābhira spring from the union of a brāhmaṇa with an ugra girl and an ambaṣṭha girl respectively (i. e. from the union of a brāhmaṇa with *anuloma* caste girls). Manu X. 19 says that śvapāka is the offspring of a kṣatr male (a *pratiloma*) with an ugra female (an *anuloma*). Manu X. 33 defines maitreyaka as the offspring of a vaidehaka male and an āyogava female (i. e. from parents who are both *pratiloma*). A

135. एवं ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियोत्पन्न-मूर्धावसिकमाहिष्यादुल्लोमसङ्करे जात्यन्तरता उप-
नयनादियातिश्च वेदितव्या तयोर्द्विजातित्वात् । मिता. on या. I. 95 ; एतेदुलोमजाः पुत्राः
संस्कार्याः स्युर्द्विजातिजाः । तथा मूर्धावसिकाद्विजातिजाश्च द्विजातयः ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसत्तर p. 13.

smṛti verse quoted¹³⁶ by Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 95 says that there are six anulomas, 24 doubly mixed castes (due to the union of the six anulomas with the four varṇas), 6 pratilomas and 24 doubly mixed castes (due to the unions of 6 pratilomas with four varṇas) i. e. in all 60 and further mixtures of these among themselves give rise to innumerable sub-castes. Similarly Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 7¹³⁷ says that the further mixed castes arising from the unions of mixed castes are numberless. This shows that before the time of the Viṣṇudharmasūtra (i. e. at least about 2000 years ago) numberless castes and sub-castes had been formed and the writers on dharmaśāstra practically gave up in despair the task of deriving them, even though mediately, from the primary varṇas. The same state of things was continued and was rather aggravated by the time of the *nibandhakāras*. Medhātithi on Manu X. 31 speaks of 60 mixed castes along with the four varṇas and adds that by the intermingling of these endless sub-castes are formed. The Mitākṣara¹³⁸ on Yāj. I. 95 observes that since the castes springing from the double intermingling of varṇas are innumerable, it is impossible to describe or enumerate them. Similarly the Kṛtyakalpataru in its *prakīrṇaka* topic of *vyavahāra* section, when dealing with castes, merely quotes several passages from the smṛtis and does not add a word of its own about the castes, their names or avocations in its own day (first half of 12th century). The Mit. on Yāj. I. 94¹³⁹ expressly says that the avocations of the pratilomas (about which Yāj. is silent) should be understood from the smṛtis of Uśanas and Manu. Medieval writers on dharmaśāstra usually ignore the treatment in detail of the numerous sub-castes and content themselves with dilating upon the duties of the four varṇas.

There was great diversity of opinion among the smṛtikāras about the derivation and status of the several sub-castes. We find that the same sub-caste is known under five or six different names even so early as the present Manusmṛti.

136. प्रातिलोम्यानुलोम्येन वर्णैस्तज्जैश्च वर्णतः । पृथग्वान्ये प्रजायन्ते तत्प्रसूतेस्त्वनन्तता ॥ quoted by निश्चरूप on या. I. 95. It is quoted also by परा. मा. I. part 2 p. 125 and both say that these are वर्णाभासः; the परा. मा. says that further *samkaras* are जात्याभासः.

137. संकरसंकराश्चासंख्येयाः । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 16. 7.

138. संकीर्णसंकरजीतानामानन्त्याद्वक्तुमशक्यत्वात् । मिता० on या. I. 95

139. एतेषां च वृत्तय औशनसे माने च द्रष्टव्याः । मिता० on या. I. 94.

Manu X. 22 gives seven names for the same caste and Manu X. 23 gives five for another. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 92 explains that these different names are due to difference of locality.¹⁴⁰ There is another difficulty. The same name given to a caste is differently derived by different writers (vide under *niṣāda* and *pāraśava* below). For the same sub-caste different names are given in different *smṛtis* (vide under *kṛta* and *rāmaka*). It became difficult to assign any peculiar derivation for groups of people and so Manu (X. 40), Vasiṣṭha¹⁴¹ (18.7) and Anuśāsana-parva 148. 29 laid down that men's sub-caste was to be known from their actions and occupations. This shows that according to most writers castes in the times of the *smṛtis* were predominantly occupational.

One word that frequently occurs in connection with castes and sub-castes is *varṇasaṃkara* (or only *saṃkara*). In Manu X. 12 and 24 the word *varṇasaṃkara* is used in the plural in the sense of mixed castes, while in Manu X. 40 (and in V. 89) the word *saṃkara* seems to be used in the sense of 'mixture or intermingling of varṇas'. Gautama (VIII. 3) employs the word *saṃkara* and says 'on the two (the brāhmaṇa and the king) depends the prosperity (of men), protection, the prevention of mixture (of varṇas) and the (accumulation of) merit (or the observance of dharma).'¹⁴² Nārada (stripuṃsa 102)¹⁴³ says 'to be born from a union in the inverse order of varṇas amounts to *varṇasaṃkara*;' while Brhaspati quoted in the Kṛtyakalpataṛu appears to apply the word *varṇasaṃkara* to both anuloma and pratiloma castes. Baud.¹⁴⁴ Dh. S. (I. 9. 16) says that those who are born of

140. अत एव स्मृत्यन्तरेष्वेकस्यैवार्थस्यानेकसंज्ञादर्शनेऽपि देशभेदेन तथाविधप्रयोग-सत्तादुमानम् । न पुनः पारिभाषिकत्वकल्पना वेदेष्वप्यनेकविधसंज्ञोपलब्धेः । विश्वरूपेण वा. I. 92-93 ; vide also पाराशरमाधवीय I. part 2 p. 120 'एकस्यामेव जातौ मूधावसिक्त-सवर्णसंज्ञयोर्विकल्पेन प्रवृत्तत्वात् । न चैकत्र संज्ञाविकल्पे दृष्टान्ताभावः । एकत्र निषाद-पाराशवविकल्पस्य मनुदेवलयज्ञवल्क्यैश्च दाह्यतत्वात् ।'

141. छत्रोत्पन्नाश्च ये केचित्प्रतिलोम्यगुणाश्रिताः । गुणाचारपरिभ्रंशात्कर्मभिस्ताव विजानीयुरिति । वसिष्ठ 18.7.

142. प्रभृतिरक्षणमसंकरो धर्मः । गो. VIII. 3.

143. प्रतिलोम्येन यज्जन्म स ज्ञेयो वर्णसंकरः । नारद (श्रीपुंस 102) ; ब्राह्मणक्षत्र-विद्वद्भ्यां वर्णाश्रितान्त्रयो द्विजाः । प्रतिलोमादुलोमाश्च ते ज्ञात्वा (ज्ञेया ?) वर्णसंकराः ॥ बृहस्पति in कृत्यकल्पतरु (mss).

144. वर्णसंकरादुत्पन्नोऽन्वैव्रतयानाहुर्मनीषिणः । वो. ध. सू. I. 9. 16.

varṇasaṁkara are called *vrātyas*. The Mit. on Yāj I. 96 applies the word varṇasaṁkara to both anuloma and pratiloma progeny. Medhātithi¹⁴⁵ on Manu V. 88 says that the word 'saṁkara-jāta' indicates pratilomas like āyogava and that even though as regards anulomas there is intermingling (of varṇas), yet as they have the privileges of the caste of their mothers, even Manu himself does not apply the word *saṁkīrṇayoni* to them as seen above (Manu X. 25). Yama¹⁴⁶ quoted in the Kṛtyakalpataṛu says 'Varṇasaṁkara arises by the violation of the restrictions (about marriage); if the proper order of varṇas (i. e. male of higher varṇa marrying a woman of a lower varṇa) is followed, (the offspring) is entitled to be regarded as belonging to the system of varṇas, but if the reverse order is followed it is sin.' Manu (X. 24) says 'mixed castes arise by members of one varṇa having sexual intercourse with women of another varṇa, by marrying women who ought not to have been married (such as a sagotra girl) and by neglect of the duties peculiar to one's varṇa'. The Anuśāsanaparva 48. 1¹⁴⁷ remarks that 'varṇasaṁkara arises from wealth, greed, desires, uncertainty about the varṇa (of a person) or ignorance about varṇa'. Even in such a philosophical treatise as the Bhagavad-gītā (I. 41-43), it is said 'when women become corrupt (or demoralised), intermingling of varṇas arises; *saṁkara* necessarily leads the whole family and the destroyer of the family to hell. By reason of these transgressions of the destroyers of families which bring about *varṇasaṁkara*, the ancient caste observances and family observances are subverted.'

On account of the great emphasis laid on the prevention of *varṇasaṁkara* the smṛtis ordain that it is one of the principal duties of the king to punish people if they transgress the rules prescribed for varṇas and to punish men and women if guilty of *varṇasaṁkara*. Gautama (XI. 9-10) says 'the king should protect the varṇas and āśramas according to the śāstras and he should make them conform to their duties when they swerve

145. सकरजाता इतरेतरजातिव्यतिकरेण प्रतिलोमा आयोगवाद्यः । अङ्गुलोमास्तु सत्यपि संकीर्णयोनित्वे मातृजातीयत्वाद्धिकारित्वाच्च नेह दृश्यन्ते । न चाङ्गुलोमेषु संकीर्णयोनिव्यवहारः संकीर्णयोनयस्त्वेताः प्रतिलोमाङ्गुलोमजा इति । मेधा० on मनु. V. 88.

146. मर्यादाया विलोपेन जायते वर्णसंकरः । आङ्गुलोम्येन वर्णत्वं प्रतिलोम्येन पातकम् ॥ यम quoted in MS. of कृत्यकल्पतरु (व्यवहार, प्रकीर्णक) .

147. अर्थाङ्गोभक्त्यामाद्वा वर्णानां चाप्यनिश्चयात् । अज्ञानाद्वापि वर्णानां जायते वर्णसंकरः ॥ अङ्गुलसूत्रे 48, 1.

from them;’ Vasiṣṭha (19. 7-8) ‘the king paying attention to all these viz. the observances of countries, castes and families should make the four varṇas conform to their duties and should punish them when they go astray’; Viṣṇu Dh. S. III. 3 and Yāj. I. 361, Mārkaṇḍeyapuārṇa 27, Matsyapurāṇa 215. 63 say the same. Nārada (śrīpuruṣa 113)¹⁴⁸ says ‘when a brāhmaṇa woman goes astray a cāṇḍāla is born from a śūdra male (and the brāhmaṇa woman); therefore the king should specially protect women from saṁkara’. It is on account of this that so early as in the first centuries of the Christian era we see that king Vasiṣṭhiputa Siri Puṣumāyi is extolled as having prevented the mixture of the four varṇas (E. I. vol. VIII pp. 60-61, ‘vinivatitacātuvāṇa-sakarasa’). That varṇasaṁkara had gone too far in the opinion of the author of the Mahābhārata (Vanaparva 180. 31-33) follows from the following words which are despairingly put in the mouth of Yudhiṣṭhira¹⁴⁹ “It appears to me that it is very difficult to ascertain the caste of human beings on account of the confusion of all varṇas; all sorts of men are always begetting offspring from all sorts of women; speech, sexual intercourse, being born and death—these are common to all human beings; and there is scriptural authority (for this view) in the words ‘We, whoever we are, offer the sacrifice’. Hence those who have seen the truth regard character as the principal thing desired.” Śaṁkarācārya in his bhāṣya on Vedāntasūtra I. 3. 33 remarks that, though in his day varṇas and āśramas had become disorganised and unstable as to their dharmas, that was not the case in other ages, since otherwise the śāstras laying down regulations for them would have to be deemed purposeless or futile.¹⁵⁰

Gautama (IV. 18-19), Manu (X. 64-65) and Yāj. (I. 96) speak of a peculiar doctrine called *Jātyulkaṛṣa* and *Jātyapakarṣa*. These passages have given rise to some divergence of interpreta-

148. चाण्डालो जायते सूत्राद् ब्राह्मणी यत्र सुहृति । तस्माद्वाङ्मा विशेपेण स्त्रियो रक्ष्यास्तु संकरात् ॥ नारद ब्रह्मसूत्र 113; vide also नारद (प्रकीर्णक 2-6).

149. जातिरत्र महासर्पं बहुष्यत्वे महामते । संकरात्सर्ववर्णानां दुष्परिक्षयेति मे मतिः ॥ सवः सर्वास्वपत्यानि जनयन्ति सदा नराः । वाङ्मथुतमथो जन्म मरणं च समं दृष्ट्वा ॥ इदमर्थं प्रमाणं च य यजामह इत्यपि । तस्माच्छीलं प्रधानेष्टं विदुर्ये तत्त्वदर्शिनः ॥ वनपर्व 180. 31-33.

150. इदानीमिव च कालान्तरेऽपि अव्यवस्थितप्रायान्वर्णधर्मान् प्रतिजानीत । ततश्च स्थवस्थाविधायि शास्त्रमनर्थकं स्यात् । शाङ्करभाष्य on वेदान्तसूत्र I. 3. 33.

tion, but their general sense is clear. Gautama (IV. 18)¹⁵¹ says that according to the ācāryas the *anulomas* when they marry in such a way that the bridegroom in each stage is higher or lower than the bride they rise to a higher or go down to a lower varṇa in the 7th or 5th generation (respectively). This is explained by Haradatta as follows: When a brāhmaṇa marries a kṣatriya woman the daughter born of this marriage is called *savarṇā*; if this latter is married to a brāhmaṇa and a daughter is born and this latter is again married by a brāhmaṇa and if this continues in the same way for seven generations, then when the 7th girl in descent marries a brāhmaṇa, whatever child is born of that union belongs to the brāhmaṇa varṇa (though in the preceding generations only the fathers were brāhmaṇas and the mothers were all not strictly brāhmaṇas, but only *savarṇās* if at all). This is called *jātyutkarṣa* (rise in status as a caste). On the other hand, when a brāhmaṇa marries a kṣatriya girl and a son is born who is called *savarṇa*, then that son marries a kṣatriya girl and has a son and this is continued for *five generations*, then when the fifth son (in descent) marries a kṣatriya girl, the child born belongs to the kṣatriya varṇa (though in all the preceding generations the father was higher than kṣatriya and the mother only was a kṣatriya). This is *jātyapakarṣa* (fall in status as a caste). The same rule holds good as regards a kṣatriya marrying a vaiśya female and a vaiśya marrying a śūdra female. The same rule applies among anulomas also e. g. if a *savarṇa* (as defined by Gautama) marries an ambaṣṭha girl and a daughter is born who again marries a *savarṇa* and this continues for seven generations, then the child of the 7th girl (in descent) from a *savarṇa* male becomes a *savarṇa* (rises in status); on the other hand if a *savarṇa* (offspring of brāhmaṇa male and kṣatriya female) marries an ambaṣṭha girl and a son is born and that son marries an ambaṣṭha girl and their son marries an ambaṣṭha girl and this goes on for seven generations, then the child of

151. वर्णान्तरगमनमुत्कर्षापिकर्षाभ्यां सप्तमे पञ्चमे वाच्यार्थाः । सुष्टयन्तरजातानां च ।
गौतम IV. 18-19. In S. B. E. vol. II. pp. 196-197 the sūtras are arranged differently i. e. the first ends at 'saptame' and pañcame...ryāḥ is another sūtra. Though this method makes a good sense it is opposed to the explanation of Haradatta, who explains that the option allowed by the use of 'vā' in the sūtra applies only where there is pre-eminence of character and learning (i. e. in such a case rise is possible even in the 5th generation).

the 7th male (in descent) born of an ambastha wife becomes an ambastha (i. e. there is jātyapakarṣa as to anulomas).

According to Manu¹⁵² X. 64 when a brāhmaṇa marries a śūdra woman, the daughter born is pāraśava, and if this pāraśava daughter marries a brāhmaṇa and the daughter of this latter union marries a brāhmaṇa and this continues for seven generations, then the seventh generation will be a brāhmaṇa (i. e. there will be jātyutkarṣa). Conversely, if a brāhmaṇa marries a śūdra woman and a son is born, he is a pāraśava and that son marries a śūdra woman and their son again marries a śūdra woman and this goes on for 7 generations, the 7th generation becomes a mere śūdra (there is jātyapakarṣa). It will be seen that this differs from Gautama in several respects. In the first place for both jātyutkarṣa and jātyapakarṣa seven generations are prescribed, while in Gautama they are 7 and 5 respectively (according to Haradatta). In the second place according to Gautama the 8th in descent from the first anuloma marriage secures jātyutkarṣa, while according to Manu, the 7th secures it. Further Manu is silent about jātyutkarṣa when the original parents are anulomas. Besides, the commentators of Manu shorten the period for rise or fall in *jāti* as stated below. Manu X. 65 extends the same rules to the offspring of the marriage of a ksatriya with a vaiśya woman and of a vaiśya with a śūdra woman. Medhātithi and Kullūka extend these express words of Manu further by explaining that if a brāhmaṇa marries a vaiśya female and a daughter is born and she again marries a brāhmaṇa then in the fifth generation there will be jātyutkarṣa ; conversely if a son is born from a brāhmaṇa and a vaiśya wife, and he marries

152. The word 'yuga' is understood by Medhātithi (on Manu X. 64) and Kullūka to mean 'janma'; Sarvajña-nārāyaṇa understands it to mean 'yugma' (pair of spouses). The meaning (yugma) is attached to 'yuga' by Aparārka on Yāj. I. 96 (p. 119). In the S. B. E. vol. II p. 196 Dr. Bühler compares Āp. Dh. S. II. 5.10. 10-11 with Gautama IV. 22. But the great scholar is not accurate here. Āp. does not speak of progeny of mixed marriages rising to higher status or being degraded to lower status after several generations; he rather speaks of a śūdra rising higher and higher in successive births. In the Anuśāsanaparva (chap. 27. 5-6, 28. 6-13) it is said that after numberless births śūdras and others become vaiśyas and so on. Vanaparva (212. 11-12) gives expression to the same idea शुद्रयोर्नो हि जातस्य सद्गुणान्नपत्तिष्ठतः । वैश्यत्वं लभते ब्रह्मन् क्षत्रियत्वं तथैव च ॥ आजर्षे वर्तमानस्य ब्राह्मण्यमभिजायते । वनपर्व 212. 11-12.

a vaiśya female and this goes on, then in the fifth generation the son will be a vaiśya (i. e. there will be jātyapakarṣa). Similarly if a brāhmaṇa marries a kṣatriya woman then there is jātyutkarṣa or jātyapakarṣa in three generations.

Yājñavalkya (I. 96)¹⁵³ speaks of two kinds of jātyutkarṣa or jātyapakarṣa viz. one due to marriage (as in Manu and Gautama) and another due to the avocation followed. 'It should be understood that there is rise in caste in the 7th or even in the 5th generation; if there is inversion as to the avocations, then there is corresponding similarity (of varṇa in the 7th or even 5th generation).' This is elaborated by the Mitākṣarā as follows:— If a brāhmaṇa marries a śūdra woman and a daughter is born she is a niṣādī; if this latter marries a brāhmaṇa and a daughter is born and she in turn marries a brāhmaṇa and this goes on for six generations, then the child of the 6th girl (in descent) becomes a brāhmaṇa (he being 7th in descent); similarly if a brāhmaṇa marries a vaiśya woman and a girl is born, she is an ambastha; if the latter marries a brāhmaṇa and a daughter is born and this goes on in the same way, then the fifth girl in descent has a child (from a brāhmaṇa husband) which is the 6th in descent from the original anuloma marriage and which then becomes a brāhmaṇa. If a brāhmaṇa marries a kṣatriya woman and a daughter is born who is called mūrdhāvasiktā (Yāj. I. 91) and she marries a brāhmaṇa, then the fourth in descent marrying a brāhmaṇa has a child (5th in descent), then that child becomes a brāhmaṇa. Similarly, if a kṣatriya married a śūdra female and a daughter was born, she was called ugra, then jātyutkarṣa by marrying a higher male took place in the 6th generation. If a kṣatriya married a vaiśya woman, the daughter born was a māhiṣyā and jātyutkarṣa took place in the 5th generation. If a vaiśya married a śūdra woman, the daughter of the marriage is a karaṇī and if she marries a vaiśya, then in the fifth generation there would be jātyutkarṣa. Certain peculiar avocations and activities are prescribed for the four varṇas. Each varṇa may in times of difficulty follow the occupation peculiar to the caste immediately below it, but should not follow the avocations peculiar to the higher varṇas; ¹⁵⁴ he must however revert to his proper avocation when the difficulty is

153. जात्युत्कर्षो षुगे ज्ञेयः सप्तमे पञ्चमेपि वा । व्यत्यये कर्मणां साम्यं पूर्ववच्चाधरोत्तरम् ॥ या. I. 96.

154. अजीवन्तः स्वधर्मेणानन्तरं यवीयसीं वृत्तिमातिष्ठेरन् । न तु कदाचिज्ज्यायसीम् । वसिष्ठ II. 22-23.

over (vide Vasistha II. 13-23, Viṣṇu Dh. S. II. 15, Yāj. I. 118-120, Gautama X. 1-7 &c.). If a brāhmaṇa begins to follow the avocations peculiar to a śūdra and has a son, who does the same and this goes on continuously for seven generations, the 7th becomes a śūdra (by caste). If a brāhmaṇa begins to follow the avocations peculiar to a vaiśya or a kṣatriya then in the 5th or 6th generation respectively there is fall in caste (i. e. the 5th or 6th becomes respectively a vaiśya or kṣatriya). Similarly if a kṣatriya follows the avocation of a vaiśya or śūdra and this goes on continuously, then the 5th or 6th (respectively) becomes a śūdra or vaiśya. Similarly if a vaiśya takes to the work peculiar to śūdras, then the fifth generation becomes śūdra.

Baud. ¹⁵⁵ Dh. S. (I. 8. 13-14) gives another illustration of jātyutkarṣa. He says 'if a niṣāda (the son of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra wife) marries a niṣādī (and this goes on continuously), then the fifth generation becomes free of the taint of a śūdra status, he can have upanayana performed for him and his son (6th from the original niṣāda pair) can have a vedic sacrifice performed for him.'

These provisions would considerably lessen the rigour of the caste system based purely on birth. But one feels grave doubts whether such a method of jātyutkarṣa or jātyapakarṣa (particularly the one based on occupation) was or could be ever enforced in actual life. It would have been impossible to remember descent in a particular way for five or seven generations. The want of unanimity among the original smṛtikāras and the commentators also points in the direction that the method advocated, though it might have originally some slight basis in fact, was only a hypothesis and an ideal. Hardly any examples of jātyutkarṣa in the way set out by Manu or Yāj. occur in the literature on dharma-śāstra or in inscriptions. In the inscriptions we have authentic cases of intercaste marriages only, but hardly anything further ¹⁵⁶. From the Talgunda pillar inscription of king Kākusthavarman of the Kadamba family we learn that the Kadambas were originally of brāhmaṇa lineage, that the founder of the family was a brāhmaṇa

155. निषादेन निषादानापञ्चमाज्जातोऽपहन्ति शूद्रताम् । तदुपनयेत्यर्हं याजयेत् ।
जो. घ. सू. I. 8. 13-14.

156. Vide my paper published in the Journal portion of 38 Bombay Law Reporter on 'Inter-caste marriages in modern India, in the smṛtis and epigraphic records,' where several instances of inter-caste marriages are cited.

Mayūraśarman, who became exasperated with the Pallavas of Kāñcīpura and took up the sword to conquer the earth, that his descendants applied the affix 'varman' to their names (as if they were kṣatriyas, according to Manu II. 32) and Kākustha-varman (4th in descent from Mayūraśarman) married his daughters to Gupta and other kings¹⁵⁷. This shows that an originally brāhmaṇa family came to look upon itself as kṣatriya by virtue of pursuing the profession of arms and governing the people. In the Mahābhārata we meet with stories of kings who became brāhmaṇas. For example, Anuśāsana 30 speaks of Vitahavya, a king, as having become a brāhmaṇa; similarly Śalya (39. 36-37) speaks of Ārṣṭiṣeṇa, Sindhudvīpa, Devāpi and Viśvāmitra as having become brāhmaṇas at a sacred spot on the Sarasvatī. In the Purāṇas also there are stories¹⁵⁸ of kings like Viśvāmitra, Māndhātā, Saṁkṛti, Kapi, Vadhryaśva, Purukutsa, Ārṣṭiṣeṇa, Ajamidha and others as having risen to the status of brāhmaṇas. These are mythical sages and their rise is not stated to have been due to the principle of jātyutkarṣa¹⁵⁹. Ibbetson (Report on the census of the Punjab 1881, pp. 174-176) notes that brāhmaṇas following certain professions became degraded and that the caste was changed.

That the professional castes were wealthy and well organized follows from the dharmaśāstra works and epigraphic records. In this connection the words śreṇi, pūga, gaṇa, vrāta and saṅgha deserve to be carefully studied. All these were called *samūha* (group) or *varga* according to Kātyāyana.¹⁶⁰ These

157. E. I. vol. 8 p. 24.

158. Vide Vāyupurāṇa (B. I. Ed.) vol. II chap. 29. 111-114.

159. Compare the following lucid note of the पराक्षरमाधवीय I. part 2 p. 122 कूटस्थस्त्रीयुसयुगमारम्य परिणनायां पञ्चमे षष्ठे सप्तमे वाङ्मूलोऽग्रेण युगे जातिरुत्कृष्यते । पुमान् विभः बहुः शूद्रा तयोर्धुम् कूटस्थम् । तस्मादुत्पन्ना निषादी सापि विप्रेणोदा तयोर्धुम् द्वितीयम् । एवं तदुत्पन्नायां वध्वा विप्रेणोदायां तृतीयादियुगपरंपरा भवति । तत्र सप्तमे युगे जातमपत्यं ब्राह्मण्योपेतं भवति । एवं वैश्याविप्रयुगलं कूटस्थम् । तस्मादुत्पन्ना अम्बष्ठा तस्याश्च विप्रस्य च युगं द्वितीयम् । एवं.....षष्ठं यद् युगं तस्मादुत्पन्नस्य ब्राह्मण्यं भवति । तथा क्षत्रियाविप्रयोर्धुम् कूटस्थं तदुत्पन्ना सूर्यावसिक्ता तस्याश्च विप्रस्य च युगं द्वितीयम् । तत्परंपरायां पञ्चमाद्युगमादुत्पन्नस्य ब्राह्मण्यं भवति । एतदुक्तं भवति पञ्चमे षष्ठे सप्तमे वेति व्यवस्थितविकल्पाः कूटस्थदम्पत्योः समनन्तरैकान्तरद्वयन्तरजातियोगे पञ्चमाद्योऽवगन्तव्या इति । तथा च सति शूद्रावैश्ययोः वैश्याक्षत्रिययोश्च समनन्तरत्वात्पञ्चमे, शूद्राक्षत्रिययोस्तु षष्ठे जातिरुत्कृष्यते । यथा वर्णसंकर्ये प्रातिलोम्यमधममाङ्गुलीम्यमुत्तमं तथा वृत्तिसंकर्येपि । तथा क्षत्रियस्यापद्यपि याजनादिब्राह्मणवृत्त्युपजीवनमधमम् ।

160. गणाः पाषण्डपूगाश्च व्राताश्च श्रेण्यस्तथा । समुहस्थाश्च ये चान्ये वर्गाख्यास्ते बृहस्पतिः । कात्यायनः quoted in स्मृतिच. (on व्यव. p. 18), वि. र. p. 669.

words occur in the Vedic literature, but the sense is generally 'a group' and there is no special meaning attached. 'Śreṇi' occurs in the Rg. I. 163. 10¹⁶¹ (like flamingoes the horses press forward in rows or groups); both *vrāta* and *gaṇa* occur in Rg. III. 26. 6, V. 53. 11 and in numerous other places. The Kauṣītaki Br. 16. 7¹⁶² speaks of Rudra as *pūga* (as he is the head of the band of Maruts). Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 26¹⁶³ quotes a Brāhmaṇa passage about a group (*saṅgha*) of brahmacārins going about for alms. Pāṇini teaches¹⁶⁴ the formation of derivatives from *pūga*, *gaṇa*, *saṅgha* (V. 2. 52), from *vrāta* (V. 2. 21). In his time it appears the words had acquired specific meanings. The Mahābhāṣya explains (on Pāṇini V. 2. 21) that *vrātas* are groups formed by men of various castes with no fixed means of livelihood but subsisting by the might (or strength) of their bodies (by bodily labour of various kinds). The Kāśika¹⁶⁵ explains *pūgas* as associations of men of different castes with no fixed professions, who are solely bent on making money or seeking pleasure. Kauṭilya in one place distinguishes between soldiers and *śreṇis* (guilds) and in another place says that the guilds of *kṣatriyas* in Kāmbhoja and Surāṣṭra subsist by the profession of arms and *vārtā* (agriculture).¹⁶⁶ Vas. Dh. S. XVI. 15 says that boundary disputes are to be settled by the evidence of the old men in the village or town or of guilds (*śreṇi*) when there is conflict of documentary evidence. Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 167 prescribes banishment for him who embezzles the wealth of associations (*gaṇa*) and who transgresses the conventions made by them. Manu (VIII. 219) has a similar rule about village and local associations (*saṅgha*). The above words are variously explained by the several commen-

161. हंसा इव श्रेणिशो यतन्ते यदाक्षिणुर्द्विभ्यमज्ममश्वाः । ऋ. I. 163. 10.

162. पूगो वै रुद्रः । तदेनं स्वेन पूगेन समर्थयति । कौषी० ब्रा. 16. 7.

163. तस्माद् वृ वै ब्रह्मचारिसङ्घं चरन्तं न प्रत्याचक्षीतापि हैतेष्वेवंविध एवंप्रतः स्यादिति हि ब्राह्मणम् । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 3. 26.

164. व्रातेन जीवति । पा. V. 2. 21 (व्रातीन); बहुपूगगणसङ्घस्य त्रियुक् । पा. V. 2. 52.

165. नानाजातीया अनियतवृत्तय उल्लेखजीविनः सङ्घा व्राताः तेषां कर्म व्रातं तेन व्रातकर्मणा जीवतीति व्रातीनः । महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 374 (on पा. V. 2. 21); नाना-जातीया अनियतवृत्तयोऽर्थकामप्रधानाः सङ्घाः पूगाः । काशिका on पा. V. 2. 21.

166. आयुधीयमायः श्रेणीप्रायो वा मे जनपदः । अर्थशास्त्र VII. 1. p. 265; कामभोज-सुराश्रयत्रियश्रेण्यादयो वार्ताशस्त्रोपजीविनः । अर्थशास्त्र XI. 1. p. 378; प्रत्यभिलेख्यविरोध ग्रामनगरवृद्धश्रेणीप्रत्ययः । वसिष्ठ 16. 15.

tators (vide my notes to the translation of Kātyāyana verses¹⁶⁷ 678-682 of that reconstructed smṛti). Kātyāyana says 'Naigama is an association of citizens of the same city, vrāta is a company of soldiers carrying various arms, pūga is an association of traders and the like, gaṇa is a group of brāhmanas, saṅgha is a body of Bauddhas or Jains; and bands of cāṇḍālas and śvapacas are called gulma.' Yāj. (I. 361) directs the king to punish kulas, castes, śreṇis, gaṇas, if they transgress their rules (of conduct or business) and the Mit. explains śreṇi as a guild of sellers of betel leaves and the like and gaṇa as of 'heḍābukas' (horse-dealers); while Yāj. II. 192 and Nārada¹⁶⁸ (samayasyānapākarma 2) require the king to prevent the breach of the conventions of śreṇi, naigama, pūga, vrāta, gaṇa and to confirm them in their traditional occupations. Yāj. II. 30 says that pūgas and śreṇis had authority to investigate disputes and that the pūga was a higher tribunal than the śreṇi. The Mit. on this explains that pūga is an association of people of different castes and different occupations that stay in one locality, while a śreṇi is a group of people of different castes, that subsist by the occupation of one caste and gives 'heḍābukas' 'tāmbūlikas' (betel sellers), 'kuvindas' (weavers) and 'carmakāras' (shoe-makers) as examples of śreṇis. In the Harṣa stone of Chāhamāna Vighararāja (E. I. vol. II. p. 124) there is a reference to one *dramma* for each horse given to 'heḍāvikas.' In the Nasik Inscription No. 15 (E. I. vol. VIII p. 88) we are told that in the reign of the Ābhīra king Īśvarasena 1000 kārṣāpanas were deposited with an association of potters as a permanent donation yielding interest, 500 with a guild of oilmen and 2000 with a guild of watermen (*udaka-yantra-śreṇi*) for medicines to be given to sick bhikṣus. No. 9 and No. 12 of the inscriptions at Nasik also contain reference to deposits of money with the guild of weavers. The Mathurā Brāhmi inscription of Huvīṣka's reign mentions a guild of flour-makers (*samitakara*, vide E. I. vol. 21 p. 55 at p. 61). The Junnar Buddhist cave Inscription (A. S. W. I. vol. IV p. 97) refers to an investment of monies with the guild (*śreṇi*) of bamboo-workers and of braziers (*kāśakāra*). The Indore copperplate of Skandagupta (of the Gupta samvat 146) speaks of the deposit with the guilds of the

167. These verses are quoted in the विवाहवृत्तान्तकार pp. 618-669, स्मृतिचन्द्र, धीरमित्रोदय p. 426., परा. मा. (on पय.) p. 352 &c.

168. पाण्डनैगमश्रेणीपूगव्रातगणादिषु । संस्केतसमयं राजा दुर्गे जन्मपदे तथा ॥ नारद (समयस्यानपाकर्म 2).

oilmen of Indrapura for permanently securing a supply of two *palas* of oil (C. I. I. vol. III p. 70). Similarly it is said that a guild of silk weavers from Lāṭa (southern Gujerat) came to Daśapura (Dasor in Malwa) and built a temple of the sun in the Mālava year 494 i. e. 437-38 A. D. (C. I. I. vol. III p. 81 = I. A. vol. 15 p. 194). These examples show that about the first centuries of the Christian era such castes as woodworkers, oilmen, betel sellers and weavers that are at present very low in the hierarchy of castes had very efficient caste guilds, so famous for their organization, integrity and stability that people deposited with them thousands for permanent services to objects of charity.¹⁶⁹

We shall now append a list of several castes enumerated or mentioned in *smṛti* and other *dharmaśāstra* works from about 500 B. C. to 1000 A. D. in alphabetical (Sanskrit) order. They are not given in a tabular form owing to numerous contradictory statements in the *smṛtis* themselves. References are given only to a few *smṛtis*, the principal ones drawn upon being the *Dharmasūtras*, *Manu*, *Yāj.*, *Vaik. smārta-sūtra* X. 11-15, *Uśanas*, the *Sūtasamhitā* (*Śiva-māhātmya-khaṇḍa* chap. 12). It is hoped that the list is fairly exhaustive for the *smṛti* period. It will be noticed that many of the caste names collected here still occur under the same forms or under slightly modified forms of the names.

Andhra. Vide above note 118 quoting the *Āit. Br. Manu* X. 36 says it was a low subcaste sprung from *Vaidehaka* father and *Kārāvara* mother and that *Andhras* were to live outside the village and to subsist (X. 48) by killing wild beasts. In the edicts of *Aśoka* the *Andhras* are associated with *Pulindas* (vide *Rock Edict No. 13*). The *Udyogaparva* (160. 103) mentions *Andhras* (probably as people of *Andhradeśa*) along with *Dravidas* and *Kāñcyas*. In the *Nālandā* plate of *Devapāladeva* (E. I. vol. 17 p. 321) *meda*, *andhraka* and *cāṇḍāla* are spoken of as the lowest castes. In *Orissa* one scheduled caste is noted as *Ādi-Andhra* (vide *Sch. C. O. 1936*).

Antya. According to *Vas. Dh. S. 16.30*, *Manu* IV. 79, VIII. 68, *Yāj. I. 148, 197*, *Atri 251*, *Likhita 92*, verse *Āpastamba* (-III. 1) this word is a generic appellation for all lowest castes

169 Vide 'Local Government in Ancient India' by Dr. Radhakumud Mukerji pp. 29-34, 44 for *pūga*, *śreṇi*, *gaṇa* and *saṅgha*. Unfortunately some of the references (as printed) are wrong and not in point.

like the cāṇḍāla. Vide the chapter on 'untouchables'. The word 'bāhya' has the same sense. Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 9. 18 says that there is a cessation of Vedic study on the day on which *bāhya* senter a village; vide also Nārada (ṛṇādāna 155), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16.14.

Antyaja. This word is applied to all lowest castes like the cāṇḍāla in Manu IV. 61, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 36.7, Yāj. I. 273, Brhad-yama (quoted in Mit. on Yāj. III. 260). In Manu VIII. 279 the word is used in the sense of 'śūdra'. Various enumerations of the subdivisions of antyajās are found in the smṛtis. Atri 199 enumerates¹⁷⁰ seven *antyajās* viz. rajaka (washerman), carmakāra (worker in hides), naṭa (dancer caste, represented in the Deccan by *Kolhātis*), buruḍa (worker in bamboos), kaivarta (fisherman), meda, bhilla. This verse is quoted as Āpastamba's by the Mit. on Yāj. III. 265, while Aparārka p. 1123 ascribes it to Atri. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 260 distinguishes between two groups of antyajās, viz. the one quoted above which it says is not so low as another group of seven, which are called *antyavasāyins*,¹⁷¹ viz. cāṇḍāla, śvapaca (eater of dog flesh), kṣatr, sūta, vaidehika, māgadha and āyogava. In the Mahābhārata (Śānti 101. 19) reference is made to *antya* soldiers and Nilakanṭha explains that they were the kaivartas and bhillas of the border regions. According to the Sarasvatī-vilāsa (p. 74) Pitāmaha speaks of the seven castes of rajaka and others as *prakṛtis*.¹⁷² Is it possible that the Prākṛta languages were originally so called because they were spoken by these castes called prakṛtis? In the Sangamner plate of Bhillama II dated *śake* 922 (E. I. vol. II. p. 220) a village is granted with eighteen *prakṛtis* (meaning probably the eighteen guilds of washermen and others). The Viramitrodaya (vyavahāra p. 12) explains that śrenis mean the eighteen low castes such as the rajaka. This shows that these low castes had risen in social status in the medieval ages by their organization and

170. राजकश्चर्मकारश्च नटो बुरुड एव च । कैवर्तमेदभिष्टाश्च सप्तैते चान्त्यजाः स्मृताः ॥ अत्रि 199, अङ्गिरस (Jiv. I. p. 554), यम 33 (Ānand. ed.). Some mss. read म्लेच्छ for मेद; vide note 202 below.

171. चाण्डालः श्वपचः क्षत्ता सुतो वैदेहिकस्तथा । मागधायोगवौ चैव सप्तैतेऽन्त्यावसायिनः ॥ मध्यमाङ्गिरस acc. to मिता on या. III. 265; quoted by हरदत्त on गौ. 20. 1 and परा. मा. II. part 1 p. 116.

172. शास्त्राणि वर्णधर्मस्तु प्रकृतीनां च भूपतिः । व्यवहारस्वरूपं च ज्ञात्वा कार्यं समाचरेत् ॥ प्रकृतयस्तु पितृमहेन दासिता राजक-चर्मकार-नट बुरुड-कैवर्तक-म्लेच्छभिष्टादयः । सरस्वतीविलास p. 74.

wealth. The Veda-Vyāsa smṛti (I. 12-13) enumerates twelve castes by name as *antyajas* and adds that all those who eat cow's flesh are also *antyajas*.¹⁷³

Antāvasāyin or *Antyāvasāyin*. Manu IV. 79 separately mentions 'antyās' and 'antyāvasāyins' and Manu X. 39 says that the *antyāvasāyin* is the offspring of a *cāṇḍāla* male from a *niṣāda* female, that he is condemned even by all 'bāhyas' (untouchables) and stays in a cemetery. Gautama 20. 1 and 23. 32 mentions 'antyāvasāyin (and -yini)'. Vas. Dh. S. 18. 3 holds that the *antyāvasāyin* is the offspring of a *sūdra* from a *vaiśya* woman. The Bhāradvāja-śrauta sūtra (XI. 22. 12) forbids the study of the Veda in the presence of the *antyāvasāyin*. The Anuśāsana-parva (22. 22) speaks of Medas, Pulkasas and *Antāvasāyins* (the printed text is corrupt). Śānti (141. 29-32) gives a graphic description of a hamlet of *cāṇḍālas* and calls them 'antyāvasāya' (in verse 41). Nārada (ṛṇādāna 182) says that an *antyāvasāyin* is not eligible as a witness. Some modern works like the Jātiviveka (D. C. Ms. No. 347 of 1887-91) say that Dom in modern times is the *antyāvasāyin* of the smṛtis.

Abhiṣikta — See under Mūrdhāvasikta.

Ambaṣṭha — (same as Bhṛijakaṇṭha).

In Ait. Br. (chap. 39. 7) king *Āmbaṣṭhya* is said to have performed an *Aśvamedha* sacrifice. In Pāṇ. VIII. 3. 97 the word *Ambaṣṭha* is derived and on Pāṇ. IV. 1. 170 *Āmbaṣṭhya* (king?) is cited by Pat. as an example derived from *Ambaṣṭha* (a country). It is a question whether the caste of *Ambaṣṭhas* derived its name from a country. Karnaparva (6. 11) mentions a king *Ambaṣṭha*. In Baud. Dh. S. I. 9. 3, Manu X. 8, Yāj. I. 91, Uśanas 31, Nārada (śrīpuruṣa v. 107) *Ambaṣṭha* is an *anuloma* sprung from the marriage of a *brāhmaṇa* with a *vaiśya* woman, while according to Gautama 4. 14 as interpreted by Haradatta he is the offspring of a *kṣatriya* from a *vaiśya* woman. Manu X. 47 prescribes the profession of medicine for him and Uśanas¹⁷⁴ (31-32) says that he may subsist by agriculture or may be a fire-dancer or he may be a herald (? banner proclaimer)

173. चर्मकारी भटो भिष्टो रजकः पुष्करो नटः । विराटो मेदुचाण्डालौ दाशः श्वपच-
कोलिकाः ॥ एतेन्यजाः समाख्याता ये चान्ये च गवाशनाः । एषां संभाषणात्स्नानं दर्शनादर्क-
वीक्षणम् ॥ वेदव्यास I. 12-13. 'श्रेण्यो रजकाद्यष्टादशहीनजातयः' वीरमित्रोदय
(व्यवहार p. 12).

174. कृष्णजीवी भवेत्तस्य तथैवाग्नेयनर्तकः । ध्वजविश्रावका वापि अम्बष्टाः शस्त्र-
जीविनः (शल्यजीविनः ?) । उशनस् 31-32.

and live by surgery. Vaik. 10. 12 has almost the same words; the Sahyādri-khaṇḍa (26. 40-41) says the same. Haradatta on Āp. Dh. S. I. 6. 19. 14 says that ambasṭha and śalyakṛnta are synonymous. The Baidyas of Bengal came to be the ambasṭhas of Manu (vide Risley's 'People of India' p. 114).

Ayaskāra (blacksmith). In the Vedic literature we have *ayastāpa* (heater of *ayas*, probably any metal). Vide under *karmakāra* and *karmāra*. Patañjali on Pāṇ. II. 4. 10 mentions him as a śūdra along with takṣan (Mahābhāṣya, vol. I. p. 475).

Avariṭa. Devala quoted by Aparārka (p. 118 on Yāj. I. 92) says that he is born of the illegitimate connection between a married woman and a male of the same caste and he becomes a śūdra. The Śūdra-kamalākara¹⁷⁵ (p. 247) cites from the Smṛti-kaumudī a verse of the Ādityapurāṇa to the same effect.

Avira. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and a vaiśya female.

Apita. - According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of brāhmaṇa from a Daṁṣyanti.

Ābhira. According to Manu X. 15 he is the child of the union of a brāhmaṇa with an ambasṭha girl. The Mahābhārata (Mausalaparva 7. 46-63 and 8. 16-17) states that the ābhīras were *dasyus* and *mlecchas* who attacked Arjuna after the great war in the land of the five rivers and carried away Vṛṣṇi women. The Sabhāparva (51. 12) mentions ābhīras with Pāradas and the Āśvamedhika (29. 15-16) says (just as Manu X. 43-44 do) that the Ābhīras, the Draviḍas and others became śūdras by non-contact with brāhmaṇas. The Mahābhāṣya expressly states that the ābhīras are not a subcaste included under the genus śūdra but that they are a caste distinct from śūdras.¹⁷⁶ The Kāmasūtra (V. 5. 30) names an ābhīra king Koṭṭarāja. Dandin in his Kāvyaḍarśa (I. 36) says that *Apa-bhratṛśa* is the appellation of the speech of ābhīras and the like

175. द्वितीयेन तु यः पित्रा सवर्णायां प्रजायते । अवरीट इति ख्यातः शूद्रधर्मा स जातितः । देवल in अपराङ्ग p. 118 and in कुल्लूक on मनु X. 5 (अववाद इति). सवर्णास्तु सवर्णस्तु ये जायन्ते परैरपि । अवराटकसंज्ञास्ते व्रतसंस्कारवर्जिताः ॥ शूद्र-कमलाकर p. 247.

176. यदि सामान्यविशेषवाचिनोर्द्वन्द्वो न भवतीत्युच्यते शूद्राभीरं गोबलीवर्द्धं तृणोल-पमिति न सिध्यति । नैष दोषः । इह तावच्छूद्राभीरमिति । आभीरा जात्यन्तराणि । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 251 (on पा. I. 2. 72.).

in poetry. The Amarakośa says that they are cow-herds and that the ābhīra wife of a Mahāśūdra is called Ābhīrī. The Ābhīras became absorbed in Hindu society and we find that an Ābhīra *senāpati* Rudrabhūti in the year 103 (181-82 A. D.) under king Rudrasimha, son of Rudradāman, built a well (E. I. vol. 16 p. 235) and in the Nasik cave No. 15 there is an inscription of king Īśvarasena, a son of Ābhīra Śivadatta and Mādhari (i. e. the mother was of the Māṭhara gotra). Vide E. I. vol. 8. p. 88. Ābhīras are called *ahirs* in modern times. Vide J. B. B. R. A. S. vol. 21 pp. 430-433, Enthoven's 'Tribes and castes of Bombay' vol. I. p. 17 ff.

Ayogava. Vide *Ayogū* above (p. 43) from Vedic literature. According to Gaut. IV. 15, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 4, Manu X. 12, Kauṭ. III. 7, Anuśāsana 48. 13, Yāj. I. 94 this is a pratiloma caste sprung from the union of a śūdra male and a vaiśya female; while Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 7), Uśanas 12, Vaik. X. 14 say that it springs from the union of a vaiśya male and a kṣatriya female. Vas. Dh. S. (18. 3) gives antyāvasāyin as the name of the caste sprung from a śūdra male and a vaiśya female and pulkasa as the name of one sprung from a vaiśya male and a kṣatriya female. His avocation (Manu X. 48) is to pare wood, while Uśanas (verse 13) says he is a weaver or subsists by making vessels of bronze or by cultivating paddy or by dealing in cloth. According to Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 8 and Agnipurāṇa (151. 15) he is to make his living by going to the stage. The Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa says (26. 68-69) that he works in stones and bricks, makes pavements and whitewashes walls i. e. he is the modern Pātharvāṭa (in the Deccan).

Avantya. Same as Bhūrjakaṇṭha (Manu X. 21).

Āsvika. According to Vaik. X. 12 he is the child of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and a vaiśya female and deals in horses.

Ahiṇḍika. According to Manu X. 37 he is the offspring of a niṣāda male from a vaiḍehī female i. e. he is a double pratiloma caste. Kullūka says that his avocation according to Uśanas is to prevent strangers from trespassing on places where offenders are kept imprisoned. Manu X. 36 shows that the same caste is called Kārāvāra when it follows the craft of a carmakāra.

Ugra. For Vedic reference see above (p. 45). According to Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 5), Manu X. 9, Kauṭ. III. 7, Yāj. I. 92, Anuśāsana 48. 7 he is an anuloma offspring of a kṣatriya male from a śūdra

woman, while according to Uśanas (verse 41) he is the offspring of the union of a brāhmaṇa with a śūdra woman. The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 2. 7. 20) allows a pupil to bring wealth from a śūdra or an ugra when the teacher is in distress or difficulties. Gaut. 4. 14 (as explained by Haradatta) says that ugra is the offspring of a vaiśya from a śūdra female. The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 6. 18. 1) says that a brāhmaṇa may accept the gift of money, corn like paddy, flesh of deer, house, field, hay for oxen from an ugra. Manu X. 49 says that the ugra should subsist by catching and killing animals that hide in holes, while Uśanas (verse 41) states that he is to be the staff-bearer of the king and to carry out the punishments inflicted on offenders. Vide Vaik. 10. 13. According to the Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa and Śūdrakamalākara (p. 255) he is called 'Rajpūta'. In the Jātiviveka (the D. C. collection of 1887-1891 No. 347) he is called *Rāvut*.

Udbandhaka. According to Uśanas (verse 15) he is the offspring of the union of a sūnika and a kṣatriya woman, subsists by washing clothes and is an untouchable. Vaik. 10. 15 says he is the offspring of a khanaka and a kṣatriya woman.

Upakruṣṭa. According to Āśv. śr. sūtra (II. 1) he does not belong to the dvijātis, but is authorised to perform the vedic rite of *agnyādheya* and the commentary explains that he is a vaiśya following the profession of a carpenter.

Oḍra. Vide Manu X. 43-44. Oḍra is a country corresponding more or less to modern Orissa. Most of the names of people mentioned in Manu X. 44 are derived from countries. Vide note on Khaśa (p. 79) and see Sabhāparva 51. 23.

Kaṭakāra. According to Uśanas (45) and Vaik. 10. 13 he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a vaiśya and a śūdra female.

Karaṇa. According to Gaut. (IV. 17 the view of some ācāryas) and Yāj. I. 92, he is the child of the marriage of a vaiśya and a śūdra woman (i. e. he is an anuloma). Manu (X. 22) says that a kṣatriya who is a vrātya (i. e. for whom no *upanayana* has been performed) has from a similar woman a child variously called Jhalla, Malla, Niccivi (Licchivi?), Naṭa, Karaṇa, Khaśa, Draviḍa. Ādīparva 115. 43 tells us that Dhṛtarāṣṭra had from a vaiśya female a karaṇa son named Yuyutsu. Kṣīrasvāmī on Amara says that karaṇa also denotes a group of officers like kāyasthas and adhyakṣas (superintendents). The Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa (26. 49-51) says he is the same as

cāraṇa or vaiṭālika and his business is to sing the praises of kings and brāhmaṇas and study the science of erotics.

Karmakāra. Viṣṇu Dh. S. (51. 14) mentions this caste. It is most probably the same as karmāra. But Śaṅkha (prose) quoted by Aparārka p. 115 separately mentions in the same passage karmakāra and karmāra.

Karmāra. For vedic references vide (p. 43) above. This caste appears in the gaṇa kulālādi (Pāṇ. IV. 3. 118). Manu IV. 215 mentions it. In Bengal the Lohar is a scheduled caste (vide Sch. C. O. 1936).

Kāmsyakāra. (modern kāmsāra in Marathi) Mentioned by Nārada (ṛṇādāna 274) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. X. 4 in connection with the balance ordeal.

Kākavaca. Mentioned in Uśanas (50) as doing the work of bringing grass for horses.

Kāmboja. Vide Manu X. 43-44. The country of Kamboja was known to Yaska (Nirukta II. 2) and Pāṇini (IV. 1. 175). Udyogaparva 160. 103, Droṇa 121. 13 mention Kambojas with Śakas. Vide under Yavana.

*Kāyastha.*¹⁷⁷ Heated controversies have raged in mediæval and modern times about the origin and status of kāyasthas and the bitterness is reflected in the decisions of the Indian courts also. In *Bholanath v. Emperor*¹⁷⁸ the Calcutta High Court held that the kāyasthas of Bengal were śūdras and went so far as to hold that a kāyastha could marry a Dom female. But in *Asita Mohan v. Nirode Mohan*¹⁷⁹ the Privy Council left open the question whether the kāyasthas of Bengal were śūdras. On the other hand in *Tulsi Ram v. Bihari Lal*¹⁸⁰ and in *Ishwari Prasad v. Rai Hari Prasad*¹⁸¹ the Allahabad and Patna High Courts respectively held that the kāyasthas were dvijas and not śūdras. In *Subrao v. Radha* 52 Bom. 497 at p. 504-506 this conflict of decisions is referred to.

The word kāyastha does not occur in the ancient dharma-sūtras of Gautama, Āpastamba, Baudhāyana, or Vasiṣṭha nor

177 Vide for further details my paper on 'the Kāyasthas' in the New Indian Antiquary for 1939 vol. I. pp. 739-743.

178 I. L. R. 51 Cal. 488.

179 L. R. 47 I. A. 140, 145.

180 12 All. 328.

181 6 Patna 506.

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in the Manusmṛti. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. VII. 3 defines a public document (rājasaṁskṛta) as one written in the royal court or office by a kāyastha appointed by the king and attested by the hand of the superintendent of the office.¹⁸² These words suggest that the kāyastha was an officer and that there is nothing about a caste here. Yāj. I. 322 calls upon the king to protect the subjects from the harassment of cāṭas (rogues), thieves, bad characters, desperadoes and the like and particularly of kāyasthas. The Mit. explains that kāyasthas are accountants and scribes, are favourites of the king and very cunning. Uśanas¹⁸³ (35) holds the kāyasthas to be a caste and gives an uncomplimentary derivation of the name by saying that it is compounded of the first letters of kākā (crow), Yama and śhapati to convey the three attributes of greed, cruelty and the spoliation (or paring), characteristic of the three. The Veda-Vyāsa smṛti¹⁸⁴ (I. 10-11) includes the kāyastha among sūdras along with barbers, potters and others. Sumantu quoted in the Par. M. II part I p. 383 makes the food of a lekhaka along with that of oilmen and others unfit for a brāhmaṇa¹⁸⁵. Lekhaka is obviously a caste here, but whether it is the kāyastha caste is doubtful. Brhaspati as quoted in the Smṛticandrikā (vyavahāra) speaks of the gaṇaka and lekhaka as two persons to be associated with a judge in a court of justice and says they were to be dvijas. Vide also Aparārka p. 600. Therefore both these were only officers and not members of a particular caste. In the Mṛcchakatika (Act IX) a śreṣṭhin and kāyastha are associated with the judge. So the kāyastha seems to be the same as the lekhaka of Brhaspati and as a mere official. In the first centuries of the Christian era the kāyastha was merely an officer and the word was possibly derived from or is a Sanskrit approximation of some foreign word for an officer, though in some parts of the country (as shown by Uśanas and Veda-Vyāsa) the kāyasthas also had come to form a caste in medieval times.

182. राजाधिकरणे तन्त्रियुक्तकायस्थकृतं तद्व्यक्षकरचिह्नितं राजसाक्षिकम् । विष्णु-धर्मसूत्र VII. 3.

183. काकाह्लौल्यं यमात् क्रौर्यं स्थपतेरथ कुन्तनम् । आद्यक्षराणि संयुज्य कायस्थ इति निर्दिशेत् ॥ उशनसः ॥ 35.

184. वर्धकी नापितो गोप आशायः कुम्भकारकः । बणिक्-किरात-कायस्थमालाकार-कुटुम्बिनः ॥ एते चान्ये च बहवः शूद्रा भिक्षा स्वकर्मभिः ॥ वेदव्यासस्मृति I. 10-11

185. अभिशस्तपतितं पौनर्भवं पुंश्चल्यशुचिशस्त्रकारैर्लोकचाक्रिकभञ्जि सुवर्णकारलेखक-लैङ्गिकपण्डकचन्द्रकगणकगणिकाज्ञानि चाभोजयानि । सुमन्तु in परा. मा. II. 1. p. 383.

Though numerous officers are mentioned in the inscriptions of the first five or six centuries of the Christian era, the kāyastha hardly ever figures among them. One of the earliest inscriptions where the word *kāyastha* occurs is the Kanaswa Inscription of Śivagaṇa dated in the Mālava era 795 (i. e. 738-39 A. D.). Vide I. A. vol. 19 pp. 56 and 59. See also E. I. vol. X. p. 79 for Kāyastha Kāñcana in Balera plates in 994-95 A. D., E. I. vol. XI. p. 149 for Śāsanika kāyastha in Naraspatam plates of 1045-46 A. D., E. I. vol. XI. p. 20, 25 for kāyastha Surāditya who was 'Sarvasāstravit' in Govindacandra's plate dated 1129-30 A. D., E. I. 19 pp. 209, 213 Amodā plate dated 1161 A. D. (for Vāstavya kāyastha), E. I. vol. 19 p. 45 Inscription of Hammira (dated 1288-89 A. D.), E. I. XII. p. 46 (dated 1328-29 A. D. for Māthura kāyastha), E. I. 20 Appendix No. 442 p. 64 (for Gauda kāyastha). In the Rājatarāṅgiṇī (VIII. 131) kāyasthas and diviras are mentioned separately and in VIII. 2383 it is stated that the brāhmaṇa Śivaratha, who was a roguish kāyastha, was strangulated in the reign of Jayasimha. So in the 12th century kāyasthas were only officers in Cashmir and brāhmaṇas held such offices. Vide Rājatarāṅgiṇī V. 180-184 for a bitter diatribe against kāyasthas.

The Śūdrakamalākara (pp. 279-280) speaks of three sub-castes of kāyasthas.

Kārāvāra. According to Manu X. 36 he is a doubly mixed caste sprung from the union of a niṣāda with a vaiḍeḥī and his craft is that of a carmakāra. According to later digests like the Śūdrakamalākara he is called 'kahāra' or 'bhoi' and holds torches and carries umbrellas for others.

Karuṣa. According to Manu X. 23 this caste springs from the union of a vrātya vaiśya and a similar female. This caste is also called Sudhanvācārya, Vijanman, Maitra and Sātvata (according to Manu).

Kirāta. Vide above (p. 44) for vedic references. Veda-Vyāsa speaks of him as a subdivision of śūdra (note 184). According to Manu (X. 43-44) he is a kṣatriya reduced to the status of a śūdra. Anuśāsana (35.17-18) says the same about Mekalas, Dravidas, Lātas, Paundras, Yavanas and others. Karpaparva 73. 20 speaks of kirātas as men of fiery valour. Āśvamedhika 73. 25 shows that Arjuna met kirātas, yavanas and Mlecchas when proceeding to the north with the Āśvamedha horse. The Amarakośa says that kirāta, śabara and pulinda are subdivisions of Mleccha castes.

Kukkuta. According to Baud. Dh. S. I. 8. 8 he is a pratiloma caste, but I. 9. 15 says that he is the child of the union of a śūdra with a niṣāda woman, while I. 8. 12 states that he is the offspring of a vaiśya from a niṣāda woman.¹⁸⁶ Manu X. 18 agrees with Baud. Dh. I. 9. 15. According to Kauṭ. III. 7 he is the offspring of an ugra male from a niṣāda female. According to Ādityapurāṇa quoted in the Śūdrakamalākara he manufactures swords and other weapons and engages in cockfights for the king.

Kuṇḍa. According to Manu III. 174 he is the offspring of a clandestine intercourse between a married brāhmaṇa woman whose husband is living and a brāhmaṇa male.

Kukunda. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a māgadha from a śūdra female.

Kumbhakāra. This word occurs in the gaṇa kulālādi (Pāṇ. IV. 3. 118). Uśanas (32-33) says that he is the offspring of the clandestine union of a brāhmaṇa with a vaiśya female. Vaik. (X. 12) agrees with Uśanas and adds that the offspring becomes either a kumbhakāra or a barber who shaves parts of the body above the navel. Veda-Vyāsa (I. 10-11) and Devala (quoted in Par. M. II. 1. p. 431 and Gr. R. p. 337) include the potter among śūdras.¹⁸⁷ In the Central Provinces the Kumbhāra is a scheduled caste.

Kulāla. For Vedic references see above (p. 43). Pāṇ IV. 3. 118 explains the formation of kaulālakam (made by a potter). The Āśv. Gr. IV. 3. 18 says that all earthen vessels (kaulālam) of a deceased agnihotrin should be kept by his son. Why two names arose for the caste of potters it is difficult to explain.

Kulika. This caste is mentioned in Śaṅkha quoted by Aparārka p. 1175 (where Aparārka explains it as devalaka).

Kuśīlava. According to Baudhāyana as quoted in the Kṛtyakalpataru he is the offspring of an ambaṣṭha from a vaidehaka female. According to Amara he is the same as a cārāṇa (a bard). According to Kauṭ. (III. 7) he is the offspring of a vaidehaka male from an ambaṣṭha female (i. e. exactly the reverse of Baudhāyana's view) and he gives the name vaina to the offspring of an ambaṣṭha male from a vaidehaka female.

186. प्रतिलोमास्त्वायोगवमागधवैष्णवपुलकसकुक्कुटवैदेहकचण्डालाः । निषादासु तृतीयायां पुलकसः । विपर्यये कुक्कुटः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 8. 8, 11-12; शूद्राक्षिपाद्यां कुक्कुटः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 9. 15.

187. स्वदासो नापितो गोपः कुम्भकारः कुषीबलः । ब्राह्मणैरपि भोक्तव्याः पञ्चैते शूद्र-योनेयः । देवल in परा. मा. II. 1. p. 431.

Kṛta. According to Gaut. IV. 15 he is the offspring of a vaiśya from a brāhmaṇa woman. Yāj. I. 93 and others call this caste vaidehaka.

Kaivarta. In the Assam valley kaibartta is a scheduled caste. Vide under antyaja (p. 70) above. Medhātithi on Manu X. 4 says that this is a mixed caste. Manu X. 34 tells us that the inhabitants of Āryāvarta employ the name kaivarta to denote the offspring of a niṣāda from an āyogava woman, who is also called mārgava and dāsa (dāsa?) and who subsists by plying boats. Śaṅkara on Vedāntasūtra II. 3. 43 says that dāsa and kaivarta are the same. Fick p. 302 notes that fishermen who work with nets and baskets were called in the Jātakas *kevatta*.

Kolika. Mentioned as one of the antyajās by Veda-Vyāsa. Vide note 173 under antyaja. Koli is a scheduled caste in the Central Provinces and Kol in United Provinces.

Kṣatr. For vedic references see above. According to Baud. Dh. S. I. 9. 7, Kauṭ. (III. 7), Manu X. 12, 13 and 16, Yāj. I. 94, Nārada (stripuṃsa 112), this is a pratiloma caste sprung from a śūdra father and kṣatriya mother. Manu (X. 49-50) prescribes for him the same avocation as for ugra and pulkasa. Vas. Dh. S. 18. 2 calls him vaiṇa. In the Amarakośa kṣatr is given three meanings, a charioteer, doorkeeper and the caste described above. In Chāndogya Up. IV. 1. 5, 7, 8 the word seems to mean only door-keeper. Pāṇ. notices the word (VI. 4. 11). The Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa (26. 63-66) says that kṣatr is also called niṣāda and that he is an expert in catching deer by means of nets, is a forester and kills wild animals, also rings a bell at night to remind people of the hour.

Khanaka. According to Vaik. (X. 15) he is the offspring of an āyogava male and kṣatriya female and lives by digging.

Khaśa or *khasa*. According to Manu X. 22 this is another name for karapa; while in X. 43-44 he makes the khaśas a kṣatriya caste originally but reduced to the status of śūdras by the absence of saṃskāras and the absence of contact with brāhmaṇas. Vide Sabhā. 52. 3, Udyoga 160. 103.

Guhaka. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a śvapaca from a brāhmaṇa female.

Gōja (or *Goda*). According to Uśanas (28-29) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and female.

Gopa. Vide note 184. He is the modern Gavli and a śūdra subcaste. Yāj. II. 48 says that debts contracted by gopa wives must be paid by their husbands as the latter's profession and earnings depend upon them. The Kāmasūtra (I. 5. 37) mentions a caste called Gopālaka.

Golaka. He is the offspring of a clandestine intercourse between a brāhmaṇa widow and a brāhmaṇa male. Vide Manu III. 174, Laghu-Śātātapa 105, Sūtasamhitā (Śiva. 12. 12).

Cakrī. According to Uśanas (22-23) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a śūdra male and a vaiśya female and subsists by (selling) oil and oilcakes or salt. He seems to be the same as tailika. Hārīta (quoted by Aparārka p. 279) mentions him. According to Brahmapurāṇa quoted by Aparārka p. 1177 he is one who presses sesame. According to Vaik. (X. 13) he is the offspring of a secret love affair between a vaiśya male and a brāhmaṇa female and engages in the sale of salt and oil.

Carmakāra. Vide under antyaja (p. 70) above. He is mentioned in many smṛtis like Viṣṇu Dh. S. (51.8), Āpastamba (in verse 9.32), Parāśara (VI. 44). According to Uśanas (4), he is the offspring of a śūdra from a kṣatriya girl, while verse 21 says that those sprung from a vaidehaka and a brāhmaṇa girl subsist by working on hides. Vaik. (X. 15) agrees with this latter. Manu IV. 218 speaks of him as carmāvakartin (cutter of hides). According to several smṛtis he is one of the seven antyajās. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of an āyogava from a brāhmaṇa female. This name persists to this day as cāmbhār (in Western India) or cāmār in all other Indian provinces. This caste is often spoken of as Mochi (shoe-maker). Often the mochi are Moslems. This is an untouchable caste and the population of carmakāras in India is very large. In the Bombay Presidency alone they are about two hundred and ninety thousand (in 1931).

Cākrika. According to Amara he is a person who rings a bell. Kṣīrasvāmī says that he announces the king's arrival by ringing bells and that some regard him as the same as vaitālīka. According to Śaṅkha (prose) and Sumantu quoted by Aparārka (pp. 1175-76) cākrika and tailika are separate subcastes. According to Vaik. (X. 14) he is the offspring of a love affair between a śūdra male and a vaiśya female and his avocation is the sale of salt, oil and oil cakes.

Cāṇḍāla (or *cāṇḍāla*). For Vedic references see above pp. 44-45. Acc. to Gaut. IV. 15-16, Vas. Dh. S. 18. 1, Baud. Dh. S. I. 9. 7, Manu X. 12, Yāj. I. 93, Anuśāsana 48. 11 he is a pratiloma caste sprung of a śūdra from a brāhmaṇa woman. He is the lowest among men (Manu X. 12), beyond the pale of religious observances prescribed for the four varṇas (sarvadharmā-bahishkṛta, as Yāj. I. 93 says) and often spoken of in the same breath with dogs and crows (e. g. Āp. Dh. S. II. 4. 9. 5, Gaut. 13. 25, Yāj. I. 103).¹⁸⁸ The word occurs in the kulālādi gaṇa (Pāṇ. IV. 3. 118). Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti (I. 9-10) says that there are three kinds of cāṇḍālas. viz. the offspring of a śūdra from a brāhmaṇa woman, the offspring of an unmarried woman, the offspring of a union with a sagotra girl. Yama quoted in Par. M. vol. II. part 1 p. 306 says that one born of a person who after becoming an ascetic turns back to the householder's life, one born of a sagotra woman and one who is the offspring of a śūdra from a brāhmaṇa woman are all cāṇḍālas. Laghu-Śatātapa (59) has a similar verse. Manu (X. 51-56) says that cāṇḍālas and śvapacas should have their houses outside the village, vessels used by them cannot be used by others (even after putting them in fire), their wealth consists of dogs and asses, their clothes should be the garments on corpses, they should take their food in broken vessels, their ornaments were to be made of iron, they should incessantly roam, they are not to enter towns and villages at night, they have to carry the corpses of persons who have no relatives, they are to be hangmen when the king so orders, they may take the clothes, ornaments and beds of persons that are to be hanged. Uśanas (9-10) says that their ornaments are to be of lead or iron, they should have a leather thong round their necks or a cymbal under their armpits, they should remove the dirt of the village in the first part of the day. According to Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16.11 and 14 their avocation is to be hangmen or to kill those offenders who are condemned to death and cāṇḍālas have to stay outside the village and to wear the clothes on corpses. Śānti 141. 29-32 gives a graphic description of their hamlet. The classical description of a cāṇḍāla hamlet is in the Kādambarī of Bāṇa. In Anuśāsana (29.17) Maṭaṅga is called a cāṇḍāla because he was born of a brāhmaṇa woman from a barber.

Fa Hien (405-411 A. D.) describes how cāṇḍālas had to live apart and give notice of their approach when entering a

188. व्यङ्गेः पतितचण्डालग्राम्यसूकरकुक्कुटैः । स्वा च नित्यं विवर्ज्याः स्युः पठेते धर्मतः समाः ॥ देवल quoted in परा. मा. vol. II. part 1. p. 366.

town or market place by striking a piece of wood to make themselves known so that a man may avoid them and not come in contact with them (vide 'Record of Buddhist kingdoms' tr. by Legge, p. 43). In modern times cāṇḍālas are returned as a scheduled caste in Madras and Orissa.

Cīna. According to Manu X. 43-44 the Cīnas were a kṣatriya caste reduced to the status of śūdras. They are frequently named in the Mahābhārata e. g. Sabhā 51. 23, Vanaparva 177. 12, Udyoga 19. 15.

Cuñcu. According to Manu X. 48 the avocation of Meda, Andhra, Cuñcu and Madgu is to kill forest (or wild) animals. Kullūka says that he is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a vaiḍehaka woman.

Cūcuka. According to Vaik. (X. 13) he is the offspring of the marriage of a vaiśya with a śūdra woman and his avocation is the sale and purchase of betelnut, betelnut leaves and sugar.

Cailanirṇejaka (or only nirṇejaka)—washerman. This occurs in Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 15 and Manu IV. 216. It appears that Viṣṇu who separately mentions 'rajaka' (in 51. 13) distinguishes between the two. Hārīta (quoted in Aparārka p. 279) also distinguishes between 'rajaka' (one who dyes clothes) from 'nirṇejaka' (one who washes clothes). Very often 'rajaka' means only 'a washerman' (as Amara says).

Jālopajīvin—(subsisting by catching animals in a net) probably the same as a kaivarta. He is mentioned in Hārīta quoted by Aparārka p. 279.

Jhalla. Manu X. 22 says that it is another name for Karaṇa and Khasa. In Bengal Jhalo Malo or Malo is returned as a scheduled caste.

Ḍomba (or Doma) is the same as śvapaca according to Kṣīra-svāmi on Amara. Parāśara quoted by Aparārka (p. 1197) puts śvapāka, ḍomba and cāṇḍāla on the same level. In the Rājatarāṅgiṇī (V. 354, VI. 182, VI. 192) ḍombas are spoken of as untouchables on the same level with cāṇḍālas and as following the profession of singers. In Rājatarāṅgiṇī V. 389-394 ḍombas are spoken of as śvapacas. This caste is returned as a scheduled caste in Madras as Ḍombo, as Dom in Bengal, Bihar and U. P.

Takṣan or *Takṣaka* (carpenter). For vedic references see above (p. 43). He is the same as vardhaki quoted above, under kāyastha. He is mentioned by Manu IV. 210, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 8. According to the Mahābhāṣya on Pāp. II. 4. 10

the [takṣan is a śūdra and on the same level with an ayas-kāra (ironsmith) and excluded from sacrificial rites. Even so early as the Śat. Br. the takṣan was an unholy person (amedhya) and his touch made *yajñapātras* impure (I. 1. 3. 12). Uśanas 43 says that takṣaka is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa female from a śūcaka (i. e. he is a pratiloma). He must be supposed to be originally different from the rathakāra (vide Tai. S. quoted above p. 43) who was allowed the vedic rite of *ādihāna* or probably in the time of the smṛtis the carpenter lost his former status. According to Vaik. (X. 14)¹⁸⁹ the offspring of a brāhmaṇa girl from a cūcaka (śūcaka?) is a takṣaka who is untouchable or a goldsmith or blacksmith or worker in bell-metal. Bṛhaspati names the takṣaka as one whose food a brāhmaṇa could not eat.

Tantuvāya (a weaver), also called kuvinda. He is mentioned in Viṣṇu Dh. S. (51. 13) and Śaṅkha quoted by Aparārka p. 1175. He is regarded as a śūdra by the Mahābhāṣya on Pāp. II. 4. 10 and as excluded from sacrificial rites.

Tāmbūlika—seems to have been a caste. Vide Kāmasūtra I. 5. 37. Bāṇa refers to his house as stored with spices and betel.

Tāmropajivin (coppersmith). According to Uśanas (14) he is the offspring of an āyogava from a brāhmaṇa woman. Vaik. (X. 15) says the same and calls him tāmra. The Jātiviveka (D. C. No. 347 of 1887-91) gives the name as tāmra-kutṭaka.

Tunnāvāya (a tailor). He occurs in Manu IV. 214. According to the Brahmapurāṇa quoted by Aparārka p. 1178 he is the same as sūci (or saucika).

Tailika (oilman)—occurs in Viṣṇu Dh. S. (51. 15), Śaṅkha and Sumantu quoted by Aparārka (pp. 1175 and 1176).

Darada. Manu X. 44 names him. Vide note on kṣasa above p. 79. Vide Mahābhārata, Udyogaparva 4. 15.

Dāśa (a fisherman). This occurs in an Upaniṣad passage according to Vedānta-sūtra II. 3. 43. Veda-Vyāsa (I. 12-13) includes him among antyaśas (vide footnote 173). Manu X. 34 says that mārḡava, dāśa (dāśa?) and kaivarta are the same and that he subsists by plying boats. Pāp. (III. 4. 73) derives the word. Vide under kaivarta.

189. चूचुकादिमायां तक्षकोऽस्पृश्यो द्यौरीहस्तो दारकारः सुवर्णकारोऽयस्कारः कांस्यकारी वा । वेत्ता. X. 14; नदनर्तकतक्षानश्चर्मकारः सुवर्णकृत् । स्थाणुपाषण्डगणिका अभोज्यान्नाः प्रकीर्तिताः ॥ बृहस्पति in परा. मा. II. 1. p. 380.

Divākīrtiya—occurs in *Mānavagṛhya* II. 14. 11. According to Amara both *cāṇḍāla* and *nāpita* are called *divākīrti*.

Dauśmanta. According to Gaut. 4. 14 this is an anuloma caste sprung from the union of a *kṣatriya* male and a *śūdra* female. According to the *Sūtasamhitā* the name is *Dauśyanta*.

Draviḍa. The same as *karapa*, according to Manu X. 22. According to Manu X. 43-44, this is a *kṣatriya* caste reduced to the status of a *śūdra*. Vide under *khaśa*, and *Mahābhārata*, Udyoga 160. 103, Droṇa 93. 43.

Dhigvāna. According to Manu X. 15 he is the offspring of a *brāhmaṇa* male from an *āyogava* female and according to Manu X. 49 he subsists by working on (and sale of) hides. Kullūka on Manu X. 49 quotes a text of Uśanas that *Dhigvānas* subsist by working on hides and selling them and distinguishes them from *kārāvaras*. This passage is not found in the printed text of Uśanas. In the *Jātiviveka* he is styled *Mocikāra*.

Dhivara. Same as *kaivarta* and *dāśa*. Gaut. (IV. 17) indicates that this is a *pratiloma* caste sprung from a *vaiśya* male and a *kṣatriya* female (according to the view of some teachers). In the *Tai. Br.* III. 4. 12 *Dhaivara*, *Dāśa* and *Kaivarta* are separately mentioned, but how they were distinguished it is difficult to say. All caught fish in different ways. *Dhimar* is a scheduled caste in the Bhandara District of C. P.

Dhvajī (seller of wines)—mentioned by Sumantu and *Hārta* quoted by *Aparārka* p. 1176. The *Brahmapurāṇa* quoted by *Aparārka* (p. 1177) says he is the same as *śaunḍika*.

Naṭa. He is one of the seven *antyajas* (vide note 170 above). *Naṭa* is a scheduled caste in Bengal, Bihar, U. P. and Punjab. *Hārta* quoted by *Aparārka* (p. 279) distinguishes between *naṭa* and *śailūṣa* and *Aparārka* remarks that *naṭa* is a specific caste, while *śailūṣa* is one who though not a *naṭa* by caste makes a living by going on the stage. Manu X. 22 says that he is the same as *karapa*, *khaśa* (vide note on *khaśa* p. 79). Pāṇini knew of a *Naṭasūtra* composed by Śilālin and another by Kṛśāśva (IV. 3. 110 and 111), but whether the *naṭas* he meant were so by caste or whether he meant only actors in general is not clear. Vide under *raṅgavatārin* for a quotation from *Maitrī* Up. Probably this caste is the same as the *Kolhāṭis* or *Bahurūpis* of modern times (in the Deccan) who are dancers, acrobats and jugglers by profession. Fick's work p. 299 speaks

of nāṭakakulas mentioned in Buddhist *Jātakas* and at p. 294 he shows that in the Suruci Jātaka the nāṭa is described as throwing up a ball of rope and climbing it and performing other tricks of jugglery.

Nartaka. According to Uśanas (19) he is the offspring of a rāñjaka from a vaiśya woman and his profession is that of a singer. Brhaspati quoted in Par. M. (II, part I p. 380) separately mentions in the same verse nāṭa and nartaka (both being abhojyāṇa to a brāhmaṇa). Atri VII. 2 also mentions the two separately. See note 189.

Nāpita (barber). The Śāṅkhāyana gṛhya I. 25 refers to him (in cūdākarma). Uśanas (32-34) and Vaik. (X, 12) say that he is the offspring of a clandestine affair between a brāhmaṇa male and a vaiśya female and Uśanas derives the word by saying that he shaves the body above the navel of a person.¹⁹⁰ Vaik. (X, 15) says that the offspring of an ambastha male from a kṣatriya female is a nāpita, but he shaves the hair on the body below the navel. Parāśara (XI, 21)¹⁹¹ says that the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra girl is called dāsa if saṃskāras are performed on him, but if they are not performed he becomes a nāpita. Pān. (VI, 2, 62) specially provides for the accentuation of words meaning artisan (*śilpin*, like nāpita or kulāla) when compounded with the word *grāma*. The Sūtasamhitā (Śiva—chap. XII, 15) says that the offspring of the clandestine union of a brāhmaṇa male and a vaiśya female is called kumbhakāra or ūrdhva-nāpita, while verse 32 says that the offspring of a kṣatriya female from a niṣāda is called 'adho-nāpita'.

Nicchivi. Manu X. 22 says that this is another name for karaṇa or khaśa. Probably this is a misreading for Licchavi or Licchivi. Kauṭ. (Arthaśāstra XI, 1) speaks of the oligarchies or corporations of Licchivika, Vṛjika, Mallaka¹⁹² etc. Vaiśālī was the seat of this oligarchy in the 6th century B. C. (Rapson's 'Ancient India' p. 169). Vide Indian Antiquary vol. 32 p. 233 for their Tibetan affinities and I. A. vol. 9 p. 178 and vol. 14 p. 98 for inscriptions of this tribe and 'Indian Historical

190. नाभेरुर्ध्वं तु वपनं तस्माच्चापित उच्यते । उशनस् 34.

191. शुद्धकन्यासमुत्पन्नो ब्राह्मणेन तु संस्कृतः । संस्कृतस्तु भवेदासो ह्यसंस्कारैस्तु नापितः ॥ पराशर XI, 21.

192. लिच्छिविक-वृजिक-मल्लक-मद्रक-कुक्षुर-कुक्षुर-कुक्षुरादयो राजशब्दोपजीविनः अर्थशास्त्र XI, 1.

Quarterly,' 1933, vol. 18 p. 439 ff. Fa Hien (in 'Records of Buddhist Kingdoms' translated by Legge, 1886, p. 71) says that the Licchavis of Vaiśālī were attached to Buddha and also speaks of Ānanda (pupil of Buddha) and the Licchavis.

Niṣāda. For vedic references see above (pp. 43 and 46). The Nirukta¹⁹³ III. 8 while explaining the words 'pañcajanā mama hotram juṣadhvam' in Rg. X. 53. 4 remarks that according to Aupamanyava the 'five people' are the four varṇas with niṣāda as the fifth. This shows that Aupamanyava regarded them as distinct from the four varṇas (including the śūdras). The Nirukta further says that according to the Nairuktas the niṣāda is so called because 'sin (or evil) sits down in him'; from this it follows that in the times of Yāska the niṣādas had come to be looked down upon with scorn as evil people and were probably some aborigines like the modern *Bhils*. According to Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9.3 and II. 2.33), Vas. 18.8, Manu X. 8, Anuśāsana 48.5, Yāj. I. 91 the Niṣāda is an anuloma caste, offspring of the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a śūdra woman. Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2.34), Kauṭ. (III. 7), Manu (X. 8) and Yāj. (I. 91) say that pāraśava is another name for niṣāda. Manu (IX. 178) derives pāraśava from the root *pāray* (to go across) and the word śava (a corpse) meaning 'though living he is like one dead'. In a corrupt passage of Vas. Dh. S.¹⁹⁴ (18. 9-10) the same derivation is accepted. Gaut. (IV. 14) distinguishes between niṣāda and pāraśava, the former (acc. to the com. Haradatta) being the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a vaiśya woman and the latter being the offspring of a brāhmaṇa male and a śūdra female. According to Nārada (stripuṃsa v. 108) and Anuśāsana 48.12, niṣāda is the offspring of a kṣatriya male and a śūdra female and he subsists by fishing (according to the latter). Nārada (stripuṃsa 108) says that pāraśava is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa male and a śūdra female. Ūśanas (36-38) says that the offspring of the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a śūdra woman is called pāraśava and gains his livelihood as the worshipper of the goddess Bhadrakālī or by learning Śaiva āgamas or by playing on musical instruments, while niṣāda is the illegitimate offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra woman who subsists by killing wild beasts (such as elephants) and by

193. निषादः कस्मादक्षिपद्गो भवति निषण्णमस्मिन् पापकमिति नैरुक्ताः । निरुक्त III. 8.

194. शुद्राणां (शुद्राणां?) पारशवः । पारशवो नैव (पारयन्नेव?) जीवन्नेव शवो भवतीत्याहुः । वसिष्ठ 18. 9-10, where जीवन्नेव is a paraphrase of the rather obscure words पारयन्नेव in Manu IX. 178.

selling flesh. The Vaik.¹⁹⁵ (X. 13) has practically the same remarks to make about pāraśava and niṣāda. Śāntiparva (59. 96-97) speaks of niṣādas as men with reddish eyes and with black hair. In the Rāmāyaṇa Guha, the king of niṣādas, helps Rāma to cross the river Ganges (Ayodhyā 50. 33). Here he is spoken of as belonging to the caste of niṣādas (niṣāda-jātyaḥ). We have historical evidence for the name pāraśava in the Harṣacarita (I, towards end), where Bāṇa¹⁹⁶ tells us that he had with him two pāraśava brothers Candrasena and Mātrṣena in his travels. In the Tipperah copperplate of a chieftain called Lokanātha (about 650 A. D.) we are told that the king's maternal grandfather Keśava was a pāraśava (vide E. I. vol. 15 at p. 307). The Mit. on Yāj. I. 91 cautions that this niṣāda (the anuloma offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra woman) is different from another caste called niṣāda, which is a pratiloma one and lives by catching fish. Medhātithi on Manu X. 8 does the same. Niṣāda occurs in the gaṇa kulālādi (Pan. IV. 3. 118). The Vāyupurāṇa (vol. II. chap. 1. 120-121) narrates that the niṣādas, dark and dwarfish, were produced from the left hand of king Vena and they dwelt on the Vindhya. In the Bhāgavata-purāṇa we have the same story¹⁹⁷ (IV. 14. 42 ff.) and we are told that niṣādas were dark like crows, of short stature, snubnosed, with red eyes and hair and that they dwelt in mountains and forests.

Pahlava.—occurs in Manu (X. 43-44) as a kṣatriya caste reduced to the status of śūdra. Vide note on khaśa. The Mahābhārata several times mentions the Pahlavas, Pāradas and other non-Aryan people (vide Sabhā 32, 16-17, Udyoga 4. 15, Bhīṣma 20. 13).

Pāṇḍusopāka. According to Manu X. 37 he is the offspring of a cāṇḍala male from a vaidehaka woman, who maintains himself by dealing in bamboos. He is the same as buruḍa.

Pārada. Vide Manu X. 43-44 and note on khaśa above. Pāradas are frequently mentioned in the Mahābhārata, generally

195. विप्राच्छुद्रायां पारशवो भद्रकालीपुजन-चित्रकर्माङ्गविद्या (०मार्गमविद्या?) तूर्यघोषणमर्दन (मर्दन?) वृत्तिर्जरोत्पन्नो निषादो व्याडादिमुगर्हिंसाकारी। वैखा०

196. अभवंश्चास्य वयसा समानाः सुहृदः सहायाश्च। तथा च भ्रातरौ पारशवौ, चन्द्र-सेनमातृषेणौ। हर्षचरित, उच्छ्वाप्त I (at end).

197. काककृष्णोऽतिह्रस्वाङ्गो ह्रस्वबाहुर्महाहनुः। ह्रस्वपाणिमृन्नासाग्रो रक्ताक्षस्ताम्र-मूर्धजः। निषादित्यब्रुवंस्तात स निषादस्ततोऽभवत्। तस्य वंशास्तु नैषादा गिरिकानन-गोचराः॥ भागवत IV. 14. 44-46.

as Mlecchas and non-Aryan tribes (vide Sabhā 32, 16, 51. 12, 52. 3; Droṇa 93. 42 and 121. 13). Vide under Yavana.

Pāraśava. Vide niṣāda above. In the Ādiparva 109. 25 Vidura is called pāraśava and he is said (in Ādi. 114. 12) to have married the pāraśavi daughter of king Devaka. The Sahyādrikhaṇḍa (26. 43) says that he is called śūdra and is superior to a śūdra (in status) and that he was to live by the avocations prescribed for śūdras.

Piṅgala. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from an āyogava female.

Puṇḍra or *Paunḍraka*. Frequently mentioned in the Mahābhārata among non-Aryan tribes e. g. Droṇa 93. 44, Āśvamedhika 29. 15-16. Medhātithi on Manu X. 44 remarks that the Paunḍrakas are spoken of as kṣatriyas in the Mahābhārata, so a man may be misled into thinking that even in the days of Medhātithi they were still kṣatriyas (but they were not so).

Pulinda. For vedic references see above (p. 47). They were a wild mountain tribe like the Kirātas or Śabarās. In the Vana-parva 140. 25 Pulindas, Kirātas and Taṅganas are spoken of as dwelling on the Himālaya. Udyoga 160. 103, Karṇa 73. 19-20, Anuśāsana 33. 21-22 mention pulindas. Uśanas (16) says that he is the illegitimate offspring of a vaiśya male from a kṣatriya female and he lives by rearing cattle and by killing wild beasts. Vaik. (X. 14) says the same and adds that he subsists on the produce of the forest and by killing wild animals. The Sūtasamhitā is of the same opinion as Vaik.

Pulkasa (or paulkasa). The word is also written as pukkasa. Śaṅkarācārya on Brhadāranyaka Up. IV. 3. 22 says that pulkasa and paulkasa are the same. According to Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 14) and Manu X. 18 he is the offspring of a niṣāda male from a śūdra female. According to Kauṭ. (III. 7) he is the offspring of a niṣāda male from an ugra female, while Vaik. X. 14, Uśanas (17) and the Sūtasamhitā say that he is the offspring of a śūdra male from a kṣatriya woman and that he makes his livelihood by manufacturing and selling¹⁹⁸ liquors or natural intoxicating sap. The same is the view of some teachers according to Gautama IV. 17. According to Vas. Dh. S. (18. 5) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. (16. 5) he is the offspring of a vaiśya

198. शुद्धास्त्रियायां पुल्कसः कुतकां वाक्षीं वा सुरां हत्वा पाचको विक्रीणीते ।
वेदान्त X. 14.

male from a kṣatriya female and the latter adds that he subsists by hunting. The Agnipurāṇa (151. 15) says that pukkāsas are hunters. Yama¹⁹⁹ and Hārīta quoted in the Kṛtya-kalpataru make him out as the offspring of a śūdra male from a vaiśya female. Manu X. 49 prescribes catching and killing animals that live in holes as the occupation of kṣatr, ugra and pukkasa. Kṣīrasvāmī (com. of Amara) says that pukkasa is the same as mṛtapa (which see below). Āp. Dh. S. (II. 1. 2. 6) says that when a Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya or Vaiśya is guilty of the theft of gold, of the murder of a brāhmaṇa, they undergo for some time in hell torments and then are respectively born as Cāṇḍāla, Paulkasa or Vaiṇa.

Puṣkara. Mentioned in Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti (I. 12) as one of the antyajās. Vide note 173 above.

Puṣpadha. Manu (X. 21) says that this is another name of āvantya (p. 73.)

Paundraka (or Paundra). Vide Puṇḍra above. Anuśāsana 35. 17 and Śānti 65. 13-14 have the form paundra. Vide Manu X. 44 for paundraka and note on khaśa.

Paulkasa. Vide pukkasa above.

Bandin. See under vandin below.

Barbara. Medhātithi on Manu X. 4 says that the barbaras are saṁkīrṇayonis. In the Mahābhārata they are frequently mentioned among non-Aryan tribes along with Śaka, Śabara, Yavana, Pahlava etc. Vide Sabhā, 32. 16-17, 51. 23; Vana 254, 18 (as staying in the west); Droṇa 121. 13; Anuśāsana 35. 17; Śānti 65. 13.

Bāhya. Vide under antya (p. 70).

Buruḍa (worker in bamboo). He is one of the seven antyajās (vide note 170 above). The word is also written as varuḍa (vide below). Varuḍa occurs in the Kulāladigana (Pāṇini IV. 3. 118). Buruḍa is a scheduled caste in Orissa.

Bhata. He is one of the antyajās according to Veda-Vyāsa (I. 12). Vide note 173 above and on raṅgavatārin below.

Bhilla. He is one of the antyajās according to Āṅgiras, Atri 199, Yama 33. Vide note 170 above.

Bhīṣak. According to Uśanas (26) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a brāhmaṇa and a kṣatriya girl

199. वैश्यायामेव सूत्रेण पुक्कसो नाम जायते । यम in कृत्यकल्पतरु (ms).

and he maintains himself by studying the Āyurveda in its eight parts, or astronomy, astrology and mathematics (verse 27). According to Brahmapurāṇa (quoted by Aparārka p. 1171) he lives by surgery and by attending upon patients.

Bhūpa. According to Yama quoted in Kṛtyakalpataru he is the offspring of a vaiśya from a kṣatriya female.

Bhūrjakantaka. According to Manu X. 21 he is the offspring of a vrātya brāhmaṇa from a similar woman. In several countries he is called āvantya or vāṭadhāna, puspadhā or śaikha.

Bhr̥jjakanṭha (same as ambaṣṭha). According to the view of some teachers mentioned in Gaut. IV. 17, he is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa male from a vaiśya female.

Bhoja. According to the Sūta-saṃhitā he is the offspring of a kṣatriya woman and a vaiśya male.

Madgu. Mentioned in Manu X. 48 as subsisting by killing wild beasts. Kullūka on that verse explains that according to Baudhāyana he is the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a bandin female. Vaik. X. 12 says that he is the offspring of the marriage of a kṣatriya male with a vaiśya female and subsists as a merchant (śreṣṭhin) and does not take to the profession of a warrior.

Manikāra. According to Uśanas (39-40) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and a vaiśya female and he gains his livelihood by working on beads, by perforating pearls and dealing in coral and conches. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the clandestine offspring of a vaiśya male from a vaiśya female.

Matsyabandhaka (a fisherman). According to Uśanas (44) he is the offspring of a takṣaka (carpenter) from a kṣatriya woman.

Malla. Vide Manu (X. 22) who says that it is another name of Jhalla etc.

Māgadha. According to Gaut. IV. 15, Anuśāsana 48. 12, Kauṭ. (III. 7), Manu X. 11, 17 and Yāj. I. 93 he is a pratiloma caste sprung from the union of a vaiśya male and a kṣatriya female; while according to the view of some teachers mentioned in Gaut. IV. 16, Uśanas (7) and Vaik. (X. 13) he is the offspring of a vaiśya male and a brāhmaṇa female; but Baud. Dh. S. I. 9. 7 says he is the offspring of a śūdra male and a vaiśya female and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 5 makes him the offspring of a śūdra from a kṣatriya female. Manu (X. 47) prescribes trade by land routes for

Māgadhas; Anuśāsana X. 48 says that they maintain themselves on speech (i. e. by praise) and are also called *bandin*. Sahyā-drikhaṇḍa (26. 60-62) also calls him *bandin* and says he is slightly superior to śūdra and that he is clever in ornate prose, in six languages, in kalās and he is a devotee of Kālikā. Vaik. (X. 13) states that even śūdras cannot take food cooked by him, that he is an untouchable and maintains himself by praise, by singing or by being a messenger. Uśanas (7-8) says that he becomes the *bandin* of brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas, he maintains himself by lauding (the deeds of others) or as a messenger or servant of a vaiśya. Pāṇini IV. 1. 70 derives the word Māgadha from the country Magadha, but apparently not in the sense of a caste.

Māṇavika. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of the clandestine union of a śūdra male and a śūdra female.

Mātāṅga. The same as cāṇḍāla. The Kādambarī of Bāṇa (para 9) and Amara employ them as synonymous. Yama (12) uses the word Mātāṅga where we ordinarily find cāṇḍāla in other smṛtis. In the Bombay Presidency there is an untouchable caste called *Māṅg* which numbers about three hundred thousand. There are Mangs as a scheduled caste in Orissa.

Mārgava. Same as kaivarta (fisherman). Vide Manu X. 34.

Mātākāra or *Mālīka*. Vide Veda-Vyāsa (I. 10-11) quoted above in note 184.

Māhiṣya. According to the view of some teachers mentioned in Gaut. IV. 17 and Yāj. I. 92 he is an anuloma caste sprung from the marriage of a kṣatriya with a vaiśya woman. According to the Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa (26. 45-46) he is entitled to upanayana and his avocations are astrology, augury, prognostications due to *svara*. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the same as ambastha.

Mūrdhāvasikta. This is an anuloma caste according to the view of some teachers in Gaut. IV. 17 and Yāj. I. 91 sprung from the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a kṣatriya woman. According to Vaik. (X. 12) the offspring of the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a kṣatriya woman is the foremost among anulomas and is called *savarṇa*, while the offspring of the clandestine union of these two is called *abhiṣikta*. If crowned he becomes a king, otherwise he subsists by studying Āyurveda (Medicine) or the science of ghosts or astronomy, astrology and mathematics. In the Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa (chap. 26. 36-39) more details are added.

Mṛtapa. Vide pulkasa above. In the Mahābhāṣya²⁰⁰ on Pān. II. 4. 10 this caste is mentioned as separate from cāṇḍāla, but both are included by the Mahābhāṣya under śūdras that are *niravasita* (i. e. those who are so low in the caste system that if a vessel is used by them for eating their food from it cannot be used by any one of the other castes even after the vessel is purified by fire &c.).

Meda. He is one of the seven *antyajas* (vide note 170). This is mentioned in Nārada (vākpāruṣya, verse 11). Anuśāsana 22. 22 speaks of medas, pulkasas and antāvesāyins, and the com. Nīlakaṇṭha²⁰¹ explains that Medas are those who eat the flesh of dead cattle. Manu X. 36 says that he is the offspring of a vaidehaka male and a niṣāda woman, that he dwells outside the village and Manu X. 48 says that his business along with that of Andhra, Cuñcu and Madgu is to kill wild beasts. Vide under Andhra above and see E. I. vol. XX. p. 130 where meda and cāṇḍāla are named as lowest castes in a grant of Paramardideva in samvat 1236. According to Śūdrakamalākara, andhras and medas have to sweep dirty places, doorsteps and privies.

Maitra. Manu X. 23 says he is the same as Kāruṣa.

Maitreyaka. According to Manu X. 23 he is the offspring of a vaidehaka male and āyogava female and his means of livelihood are belauding kings and nobles continually and ringing a bell in the early morning. The Jātiviveka says that he is called Dhokanakāra.

Mleccha. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of the clandestine union of a brāhmaṇa woman and a vaiśya male.

Yavana. According to the view of some mentioned in Gaut. IV. 17 he is a pratiloma caste sprung from a śūdra male and a kṣatriya woman. According to Manu X. 43-44 Yavanas were originally kṣatriyas reduced to the status of śūdras (vide under kṣasa above p. 79). In the Mahābhārata Yavanas are almost

200. अनिरवसितानामित्युच्यते कुतोऽनिरवसितानाम् । आर्यावर्तादनिरवसितानाम् । कः पुनरार्यावर्तः । यद्येवं किंकिन्धगान्दिकं शक्यवन्न शौर्यक्रौञ्चमिति न सिध्यति । एवं तर्हि आर्यनिवासादनिरवसितानाम् । कः पुनरार्यनिवासः । ग्रामो घोषो नगरं संवाह इति । तत्र चण्डालमुत्पत्ता इति न सिध्यति । एवं तर्हि पात्रादनिरवसितानाम् । यैर्लुके पात्रं संस्कारेण शुध्यति तेऽनिरवसिताः । यैर्लुके पात्रं संस्कारेणापि न शुध्यति ते निरवसिताः । महाभाष्ये on पा. II. 4. 10 (vol. I. p. 475).

201. मेदानां पुलकसानां च तथैवान्तेवसायिनम् (० वान्तावसायिनाम् ?) । अनु-
शासन 22. 22 ; सुतानां गोमहिष्यादीनां मांसमश्नन्तः मेदाः । नीलकण्ठ.

always associated with Śakas and several other non-Aryan tribes; vide Sabhā. 32. 16-17, Vanaparva 254. 18 (as inhabiting the west), Udyoga 19. 21, Bhīṣma 20. 13, Droṇa 93. 42 and 121. 13, Karṇa 73. 19, Śānti 65. 13. From Strīparva 22. 11 it appears that Jayadratha (king of the countries of Sindhu and Sauvira) had Kāmboja and Yavana women in his harem. Pāṇini (IV. 1. 59) derives the word Yavanāni from Yavana and a vārtika on that sūtra adds that Yavanāni means the *lipi* (the written alphabet) of the Yavanas. Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya (on Pān. II. 4. 10) indicates that he was prepared to regard Yavanas and Śakas as śūdras but as outside Āryāvarta. Aśoka in Rock Edicts V and XIII refers to the Yonas and Kambojas as nations on the borders of his empire. The Viṣṇupurāṇa IV. 3. 21 describes that the Yavanas shaved the head and also the beard, the Śakas tonsured their heads only, the Pāradas allowed the hair on the head to grow long and the Pahlavas grew beards and that all became Mlecchas because they gave up their original dharmas and because brāhmaṇas also left them.

Raṅgāvatārin (or-*tāraka*). According to Manu IV. 215 he is distinct from śailūṣa and gāyana. Śaṅkha (quoted by Aparārka p. 1175), Śaṅkha (17. 36) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 14 mention him. According to Brahmapurāṇa (quoted by Aparārka p. 1178) he is a naṭa who goes on the stage for livelihood and who introduces various changes in his appearance and dress. Raṅgāvatārin is mentioned in the Maitrī Up. along with naṭa and bhaṭa.²⁰²

Rajaka (washerman). Dhobi is a scheduled caste in U. P., Bihar and C. P. and in Bengal (called Dhoba). He is one of the *antyajas* according to several writers (vide note 170 above). According to Vaikh. (X. 15) and the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a pulkasa (or vaideha) from a brāhmaṇa woman, while according to Uśanas (18) he is the offspring of a pulkasa male from a vaiśya girl. The Mahābhāṣya on Pān. (II. 4. 10) includes him under śūdra. Yāj. II. 48 mentions him as liable to pay his wife's debts, because his livelihood depends on her. The Sūdrakamalakāra mentioned another caste of rajaka (which is the offspring of an ugra male and vaidehaka female).

202. ये चान्ये ह चाटजटनदभटप्रजितरङ्गवतारिणो राजकर्मणि पतितादयः तेः सह न संवसेत् । मैत्री उप. VII. 8.

Rañjaka (dyer). Manu IV. 216 mentions him. According to Uśanas (19) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a śūdra male and a kṣatriya female.

Rathakāra. Vide above pp. 43, 45 for Vedic references. According to Baud. gr. II. 5. 6 and Bhāradvāja gr. (I) his *upanayana* was to be performed in the rainy season. It appears he lost his status gradually. In the Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 6) he is the offspring of the marriage of a vaiśya male with a śūdra female. According to Yāj. I. 95 he is an anuloma doubly mixed as he is the offspring of a māhiṣya male from a karaṇa female and according to a prose passage of Śaṅkha quoted by the Mit. the rathakāra is entitled to have *upanayana* performed, to offer sacrifices and gifts and makes his living by learning the art of taming horses, of making chariots and building houses. According to Uśanas (5-6) and Vaik. (X. 13) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and a brāhmaṇa woman and he is to behave like a śūdra, he is not a twice-born (dvija) and cannot repeat Vedic mantras and makes his living by tending and driving horses and carts.

Rāmaka. According to Vas. Dh. S. 18. 4 he is a *pratiloma* sprung from the union of a vaiśya male and a brāhmaṇa female. This would be kṛta, according to Gaut. (IV. 15), vaidehaka according to Baudhāyana.

Lubdhaka (hunter of deer)—same as vyādha.

Lekhaka. Mentioned by Sumantu quoted in Par. M. II. part 1 p. 383. He is probably the same as kāyastha, if a caste is meant; vide under kāyastha pp. 75-76.

Lohakāra (ironsmith). Vide p. 75 under karmāra. Nārada²⁰³ (ṛnādāna 288) recommends utilising the services of an ironsmith who is so by caste in the fire ordeal. He is mentioned by Hārīta (prose) quoted by Aparārka p. 1176. The Kamauli plate of Jayacandradeva Gāhaḍayāla was engraved by 'Lohāra Someka' in samvat 1232 (E. I. IV. p. 127).

Vandin (a bard, written as *bandin* also). According to Hārīta quoted in Kṛtyakalpataru he is a *pratiloma* sprung from a vaiśya male and kṣatriya female. According to the Brahma-purāṇa quoted by Aparārka p. 1177 a vandin is one who sings the praises of men.

203. जात्यैव लोहकारो यः कुशलश्चाशिकर्मणि । नारद (ऋणादान 288),

Varāta. Enumerated among the antyajās by Veda-Vyāsa (I. 12-13).

Varuḍa (worker in bamboo)—also written as buruḍa (vide above p. 89). The Mahābhāṣya on Pān. IV. 1. 97 (vol. II p. 253) gives the instance *vāruḍaki* (from varuḍa). Bidalakāra (splitter of bamboo) occurs in Tai. S. III. 4. 5. 1. and bidalakārī in Vāj. S. 30. 8.

Vātaadhāna. According to Manu X. 21 he is the same as āvantya.

Vijanman. According to Manu X. 23 he is the same as kāruṣa.

Veṇa (or *Vaiṇa*). According to Manu X. 19 and Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 13) he is the offspring of a vaidehaka male from an ambastha female, while Kaut. (III. 7) makes the vaiṇa the offspring of an ambastha male from a vaidehaka female; and according to Manu X. 49 he makes his livelihood by beating musical instruments. Kullūka on Manu IV. 215 says that Veṇa is one who maintains himself by splitting bamboos and that he is the same as buruḍa according to Viśvarūpa. For Vaiṇa see Āp. Dh. S. quoted under pulkasa (p. 89). Kaut. (III. 7) adds that a vaiṇya follows the same profession as a rathakāra. Śaṅkha (17. 38), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 14, Yāj. III. 207 place the veṇa alongside of carmakāra, niṣāda and pulkasa. According to Vas. Dh. S. (18. 2) he is a pratiloma sprung from the union of a śūdra male and a kṣatriya female. Yāj. I. 161 has the form vaiṇa which the Mit. explains as meaning one who maintains himself by cutting and splitting bamboos. The Śūdrakamalākara notes that according to Ādipurāṇa veṇa is a drum-beater to announce royal orders and edicts.

Veṇuka. According to Uśanas (4) he is a pratiloma, the offspring of a sūta from a brāhmaṇa woman, while according to Vaik. (X. 15) he is the offspring of a madgu from a brāhmaṇa woman and his avocation is to play on a viṇā and on flutes. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a barber from a brāhmaṇa woman.

Velava. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a śūdra from a kṣatriya woman by stealth.

Vaidehaka. According to Baud. Dh. (I. 9. 8), Kaut. (III. 7), Manu X. 11, 13, 17, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 16. 6, Nārada (śrīpuruṣa 111), Yāj. I. 93, Anuśāsana 48. 10 he is a pratiloma sprung from a vaiśya male and a brāhmaṇa female; while according to Gaut. IV. 15 he is the offspring of a śūdra from a kṣatriya woman and according to Vaik. (X. 14), the view of some ācāryas

in Gaut. IV. 17 and Uśanas (20) he is the offspring of a śūdra male from a vaiśya female. According to Manu X. 47 and Agnipurāṇa (151. 14) his peculiar work is to attend on and guard women (in harems etc), while according to Uśanas (20-21) and Vaik. (X. 14) he is to tend goats, cows and buffaloes and to sell milk, curds, butter-milk and ghee. The Sūta-saṁhitā says that vaideha and pulkasa are the same.

Vyūdhā (hunter) mentioned by Sumantu in Aparārka p. 1176 and Hārīta (quoted by Aparārka p. 279), Āpastamba (verse) 9. 32, Yāj. II. 48.

Vrātya. According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 1, 1. 22-I. 1. 2. 10, Pār. gr. II. 5 and other sūtra works a *vrātya* is one on whom and on whose ancestors the saṁskāra of upanayana has not been performed. But in other works like Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 15), the word *vrātya* is applied to all who are born of the mixture of varṇas.

Śaka. Manu (X. 43-44) mentions Śakas along with Yavanas and others as originally kṣatriyas reduced to the state of śūdras. Vide note on Yavana (p. 92) above. They are mentioned in the Mahābhārata along with Yavana and other non-Aryan tribes. Vide Sabhā 32. 16-17, 51. 23, Udyoga (4. 15; 19. 21; 160. 103), Bhīṣma (20. 13), Droṇa (121. 13). Śaka occurs in the kambojādigaṇa (Pār. IV. 1. 175). Vide note 200.

Śabara. An aboriginal jungle tribe like the Bhilla. In the Mahābhārata the śabarās are frequently mentioned (e. g. Anuśāsana 35. 17, Śānti 65. 13).

Śālīka. According to the Sūtasamhitā he is the same as Māgadha.

Sūlika. According to Uśanas (42) he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a brāhmaṇa and a śūdra female and his avocation is to impale those offenders who are sentenced to be impaled. According to Vaik. (X. 13) and Sūtasamhitā he is the offspring of a clandestine union between a kṣatriya male and a śūdra female.

Śaikha. According to Manu X. 21 he is the same as *āvantya*.

Śailūṣa. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 13, Manu IV. 214, Hārīta quoted by Aparārka p. 279 distinguish him from raṅgāvatārī and the Brahmapurāṇa (quoted by Aparārka p. 1178) defines him as one who finds out employment for naṭas²⁰⁴. Āpastamba 9. 32 (verse) speaks of him in the same breath with rajaka and

204. इत्यन्वेपी नटानां दु स तु शैलूषकः स्मृतः । ब्रह्मपुराण q. by अपरार्क p. 1178.

vyādha. Yāj. II. 48 does the same and the Mit. thereon paraphrases the word by naṭa.

Saundika (wine-seller). Viṣṇu Dh. S. 51. 15, Manu IV. 216, Yāj. II. 48, Śaṅkha (quoted by Aparārka p. 1175) and Brahmapurāṇa (quoted by Aparārka p. 1177) mention him.

Śvapaca or *Śvapāka*. He is one of the *antyajas* enumerated by Veda-Vyāsa (I. 12-13). Vide note 173 above. He occurs in the *gana kulādi* (Pāṇ. IV. 3. 118). According to Baud. Dh. S. (I. 9. 12), Kaut. (III. 7), he is the offspring of an *ugra* male from a female of the *kṣatr* sub-caste, while according to Manu X. 19 he is the offspring of a *kṣatr* male from an *ugra* female. Vaik. (X. 15) and *Sūtasamhitā* say that he is the offspring of a *cāṇḍāla* male and a *brāhmaṇa* female, while *Uśanas* (11) holds that he is the offspring of a *cāṇḍāla* male from a *vaiśya* woman. According to Manu X. 51-56 *cāṇḍālas* and *śvapacas* follow the same avocation and are governed by the same rules (vide p. 81 under *cāṇḍāla*). *Uśanas* (12) says that they eat the flesh of dogs and that dogs are their wealth, while Vaik. says that they wear the same marks that *cāṇḍālas* have to wear (under the king's order, as Manu says in X. 55), that they remove the filth of towns etc., stay near cemeteries, have to dispose of corpses of men that leave no relatives, have to act as hangmen for offenders sentenced to death and to take their clothes etc., have to take food in broken pots and to eat dogs' flesh and to deal in hides and armour (or in armour made of hides). The *Bhagavadgītā* (5. 18) puts him on the same level with dogs. In the *Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa* (8. 81-83, 86, 96) a *cāṇḍāla* is called *śvapāka* (i. e. no distinction is made between the two). In the *Jātiviveka* he is identified with the *Mahar* and with the *Mang* of the Deccan.

Sāvata. According to Manu X. 23 he is the same as *kāruṣa* above.

Sudhanvācārya. According to Manu X. 23 he is the same as *kāruṣa* above.

Suvarṇa. According to *Uśanas* (vv. 24-25) he is the offspring of the legal union with Vedic mantras of a *brāhmaṇa* male and a *kṣatriya* female. It appears likely that the text is corrupt and we should read *savarṇa* for *suvarṇa*. He should perform rites prescribed by the *Atharvaveda*, he should by the king's order ride a horse, elephant or chariot, may act as the commander of an army or may practise as a physician.

Suvarṇakāra or *Sauvarṇika* or *Hemakāra* (goldsmith). A *hiraṇyakāra* is mentioned in the *Vāj. S.* XXX. 17 and in *Tai. Br.* III. 4. 14. According to *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* X. 4 and *Nārada* (ṛṇādāna 274) a goldsmith or a dealer in bronze or a bania was to examine the balance in the balance ordeal. *Manu* IV. 215, *Yāj. I.* 163, *Śaṅkha* and *Sumantu* quoted by *Aparārka* (pp. 1175, 1176) treat him on a level with *karmakāra* (blacksmith) and *niṣāda*. *Manu* IX. 292 condemns him as the worst of all rogues (*sarvakāṇṭakapāpiṣṭha*). For the view of *Vaik.* and *Brhaspati* vide under *takṣan* above (note 189). In the *Mahābhārata* it is said that after *Paraśurāma*'s alleged extermination of the *kṣatriyas*, some of them that escaped resorted to the castes of ironsmiths and goldsmiths.²⁰⁵

Sūcaka. According to *Uśanas* (v. 43) he is an *anuloma* born of the marriage of a *vaiśya* male from a *śūdra* female.

Sūcika or *saucika* or *sūci*—one who works with a needle, a tailor. According to *Vaik.* (X. 15) and *Uśanas* (v. 22) he is a *pratiloma*, offspring of a *vaidehaka* from a *kṣatriya* woman and engages in the work of sewing with a needle. *Saucika*, according to the lexicon of *Amara*, is the same as *tunnavāya* (for which see above p. 83) and the *Brahmapurāṇa* quoted by *Aparārka* (p. 1178) also equates *sūci* with *tunnavāya*.

Sūta. For vedic references see above p. 43. According to *Gaut.* (IV. 15), *Baud. Dh. S.* (I. 9. 9), *Vas.* (18. 6), *Kauṭ.* (III. 7), *Manu* (X. 11), *Nārada* (*stripuṃsa* 110), *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* (16. 6), *Yāj.* (I. 93) and *Sūtasamhitā*, he is a *pratiloma* sprung from a *kṣatriya* male and a *brāhmaṇa* woman. *Kauṭ.* is careful to add that the *sūta* who figures in the *purāṇas* as the reciter is quite different from this. A *vārtika* on *Pāp.* (VI. 3. 70) teaches the formation of words like *sūtaputri*.²⁰⁶ According to *Manu* (X. 47) and *Viṣṇu* the avocation of *sūtas* is driving a chariot (i. e. breaking and yoking horses). According to *Vaik.* (X. 13) he makes his livelihood by reminding the king of his duties and by cooking food for him. *Uśanas* (v. 3) also says that his business is to remind (a king) of his duties. According to the *Kaṇva-parva* (32. 48) *sūtas*

205. द्योकारहेमकारादिजातिं नित्यं समाश्रिताः। शान्तिपर्व 49. 84. द्योकार is probably for व्योकार (an iron-smith), while another reading is ज्याकार (maker of bowstrings) also.

206. The 9th *vārtika* on *Pāp.* VI. 3. 70 is सूतोयराजभोजकुलमेकस्यो द्रुहिदुः पुत्रद्वौ। The examples given by the महाभाष्य are सूतपुत्री, सूतदुहिता, उग्रपुत्री, उग्रदुहिता.

are the attendants of brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas and the latter need not carry out what the sūta says. According to the Vāyupurāṇa (vol. I. 1. 33-33 and vol. II. 1. 139) the sūta was to preserve the pedigrees of kings and great men and traditions about learning or books, he is not authorised to study the Veda, the middling way of maintenance for him is to depend upon kings and to look after chariots, elephants and horses; an inferior way of maintenance is the practice of medicine. The Vaik. (X. 13) and the Sūta-saṁhitā expressly say that the difference between the sūta and the rathakāra consists in this that the former is the offspring of a marriage, while the latter is the offspring of a clandestine union of a kṣatriya male with a brāhmaṇa woman. The Sahyādrīkhaṇḍa (26. 53-54) says that he is inferior to kṣatriyas, but is entitled to do all the work of a kṣatriya and that he also performs the work of a charioteer, of taming elephants and riding horses.

Sūnika or *Saunika* (a butcher). According to Uśanas (v. 14) he is the offspring of an āyogava from a kṣatriya woman. Hārīta (quoted by Aparārka p. 279) speaks of him in the same breath with *rajaka* and *carmakāra*. The Brahmapurāṇa (quoted by Aparārka p. 1177) says that he is 'paśumāraka'. Sumantu²⁰⁷ quoted by Par. M. makes his food unfit for brāhmaṇas. He is the same as 'khāṭika' according to the Jātiviveka.

Sairindhra. According to Manu X. 32 he is the offspring of a *dasyu* (as defined in Manu X. 45) from an āyogava woman and he makes his living by combing the hair (of men and women), he is not to be treated as a dāsa (i. e. he has not to eat ucchiṣṭa food), but is to perform menial work (such as shampooing the body) or is to subsist by catching deer etc. The word is included in the gaṇa kulālādi (Pāṇ. IV. 3. 118). From the Mahābhārata we see what duties Draupadī disguised as *sairandhrī* had to do for the queen of Virāṭa (Virāṭa-parva 9. 18-19), viz. combing and arranging the hair, pounding unguents, making garlands. Similarly Damayantī became a *sairandhrī* to the mother of the Cedi king (Vanaparva 65. 68-70), but she refused to eat ucchiṣṭa food, would not wash the feet of anybody and would not allow any man to approach her. According to Ādipurāṇa quoted in Śūdrakamalakāra he lives by hunting deer and guarding royal harems and women after delivery.

207. सौनिकक्रव्यादनिषादबुद्धचर्मकारा अभोज्यान्ना अपतिग्राह्याश्च । सुमन्तु in परा. मा. II. 1. p. 383.

Sopāka. According to Manu (X. 38) he is the offspring of a caṇḍāla male and a pukkaṣa female, subsists by the profession of being hangman to those whom the king condemns to death.

Sadūhanvana. Vide note on 'rathakāra' above (p. 45). Vide Kāmasūtra I. 5. 37.

It will have been noticed that some of the castes mentioned in the smṛtis such as ambaṣṭha, māgadha, malla and vaiḍehaka are connected with countries (Amba, Magadha, Videha etc.), that some others are based upon race such as Ābhīra, Kirāta and Śaka. Manu (X. 43-45) and the Mahābhārata (Anuśāsana-parva 33. 21-23 and 35. 17-18) were prepared to admit that several foreign races like the Śakas, Yavanas, Kambojas, Dravidas, Daradas, Śabarās, Kirātas etc. were originally ksatriyas, but had been reduced to the status of śūdras by losing contact with brāhmanas or by not liking the idea of being subject to the brahmanical system. The Viṣṇupurāṇa (IV. 4. 47-48) says the same. Numerous names of castes arise from the professions they follow, e. g. ayaskāra, kumbhakāra, carmakāra, takṣan, tailika, naṭa, rathakāra, veṇa etc. Even in ancient times brāhmanas followed so many different occupations almost as in modern times that the list of brāhmanas who cannot be invited at śrāddhas because they follow occupations other than those prescribed for them is rather very formidable (vide Manu III. 151 ff. and the remarks on *pañktipāvana* later on).

It appears that comparatively very early many among the brāhmanas had given up the occupations peculiar to them and were entitled to be called brāhmanas simply because of their birth. The Mahābhāṣya²⁰⁸ of Patañjali quotes a verse 'tapas, vedic study, and birth (from brāhmaṇa parents)—these are the causes why a person is called a brāhmaṇa; he who is devoid of tapas and vedic study is a brāhmaṇa only by birth (and not a real brāhmaṇa)'. Similarly in another place Patañjali quotes a verse 'know this to be the auspicious sign of the best of brāhmaṇas, viz. whose lore, actions and birth are all three holy' (vol. II. p. 220 on Pāṇ. IV. 1. 44). Though in the Mahābhārata

208. तपः श्रुतं च योनिश्च एतद् ब्राह्मणकारकम् । तपःश्रुताभ्यां यो हीनो जाति-
ब्राह्मण एव सः ॥ महाभाष्य on पा. II. 2. 6 (vol. I. p. 411 and II. p. 363). In
the अनुशासनपर्व 121. 7 we have a similar verse तपः ब्राह्मण्यकारणम् ।
त्रिभिर्गुणैः समुद्भूतो ततो भवति वै द्विजः । The महाभाष्य has another verse (vol.
II. p. 220) त्रीणि यस्यावदातानि विद्या योनिश्च कर्म च । एतच्छिवं विजानीहि ब्राह्मणा-
न्यस्य लक्षणम् ॥

it is often said that a brāhmaṇa is so by birth alone and that he deserves respect from all, still we meet several times with passages²⁰⁹ wherein there is a revolt against the caste system dependent on birth alone and where it is severely condemned and great emphasis is laid on the moral worth of a man. In the Vanaparva (181. 42-43) we are told²¹⁰ 'Truthfulness, restraint, *tapas*, generosity, non-injury to sentient beings, constant adherence to *dharma*—these always lead men to the fruition (of their goal) and not caste nor family'. Udyogaparva (43. 20 ff.) explains at great length what is meant by self-restraint. In the Śāntiparva²¹¹ (189. 4 and 8) 'Truthfulness, generosity, freedom from hatred and wickedness, humility, kindness, and *tapas*—he is known as a brāhmaṇa where these are seen. If these signs are seen in a śūdra and they do not exist in a brāhmaṇa, then the śūdra would not be a śūdra and the brāhmaṇa would not be a brāhmaṇa'. In another place we are told²¹² 'there is no difference between the varṇas; the whole world is brāhma (the creation of Brahṁā), since it was created by Brahṁā in former ages and was evolved into varṇas by actions (or occupations)'. Udyogaparva²¹³ (43. 49) remarks 'Do not regard a person as brāhmaṇa by his talk; he who does not depart from truth is a brāhmaṇa'; Vanaparva (216. 14-15) 'that śūdra who is always struggling for self-restraint, truthfulness and *dharma* is a brāhmaṇa in my opinion, for a brāhmaṇa is so by his character.' Vide Vanaparva (313. 108-111) and Yāj. I. 200 and Vṛddha Gautama p. 632. It has been seen above (p. 6) that Gautama laid the greatest emphasis on the eight qualities of the soul. But

209. जन्मनैव महाभागे ब्राह्मणो नाम जायते । नमस्यः सर्वभूतानामतिथिः प्रसूता-
ग्रमुक् ॥ अश्वत्थामनपर्व 35. 1; vide also 143. 6.

210. सत्यं दमस्तपो दानमहिंसा धर्मनित्यता । साधकानि सदा पुंसां न जातिर्न
कुलं नृप ॥ वनपर्व 181. 42-43.

211. सत्यं दानमथाद्रोह आदृशंस्यं त्रपा घृणा । तपश्च दुर्यते यत्र स ब्राह्मण इति
स्मृतः ॥ शूद्रे चैतद्भवेच्छम द्विजे तच्च न विद्यते । न वै शूद्रो भवेच्छूद्रो ब्राह्मणो न च ब्राह्मणः ॥
शान्ति ॥ 189. 4 and 8; vide also वनपर्व 180. 21.

212. न विशेषोस्ति वर्णानां सर्वं ब्राह्ममिदं जगत् । ब्राह्मणा पूर्वसृष्टं हि कर्मभिर्वर्णतां
गतम् ॥ शान्ति ॥ 188. 10.

213. तस्मात्क्षत्रिय मा मंस्था जल्पितेनैव वै द्विजम् । य एव सत्याच्चापैति स ज्ञेयो
ब्राह्मणस्त्वया ॥ उद्योगपर्व 43. 49; यस्तु शूद्रो दमे सत्ये धर्मे च सततोत्थितः । तं ब्राह्मणमहं मन्ये
वृत्तेन हि भवेद् द्विजः ॥ वनपर्व 216. 14-15; न जातिः पूज्यते राजज्युषाः कल्याणकारकाः ।
चण्डालमपि वृत्तरथं तं देवा ब्राह्मणं विदुः ॥ बृह्मगीतम् p. 632; but the परा. मा. II
part 1 p. 228 says 'जातिशालियोर्मध्ये जात्युत्कर्ष एव प्राधान्येनोपादेयः । शीलं
तु यथासंभवम् ।'.

in spite of those sentiments the caste system dependent on birth has continued in all its strength and rigour for ages and writers like the Par. M. II. 1, p. 228 are emphatic in saying that between jāti and character one must look principally to the eminence of the caste.

In certain medieval works called Jātiviveka and in other works like the Śūdra-kamalākara (first half of 17th century A. D.) several more castes are mentioned, some of which are set out below.

Aghāsika or *Andhasika*—from a vaidehika male and a śūdra female; sells cooked food; also called *Rāndhavaṇu*.

Āvartaka—from a bhṛjjakaṇṭha and a brāhmaṇa woman.

Ahituṇḍika—from a niśāda and a vaideha female; called Gārudi in Marathi.

Aurabhra—called Dhangar in Marathi (tends rams and ewes for their wool).

Kaṭadhānaka—from āvartaka and a brāhmaṇa woman.

Kuntalaka—the same as nāpita.

Kuruvinḍa—from a kumbhakāra and a kukkuṭa female. Same as modern Sālī, according to Śūdrakamalākara.

Ghclika from a Vyādha male and gārudi female. He is called Undiramāru (rat-killer) in the vernacular.

Durbhara—from an āyogava and a dhigvaṇa woman; called Dohor (or Dhor) in modern times.

Paustika—from a brāhmaṇa and a niśāda female; called in modern times Kahāra or Bhoī (palanquin-bearer).

Plava—from a cāṇḍāla and an andhra woman; called 'hādī' in modern times.

Bandhula—from maitreya and jāṅghika female; called Jhārekari now (who takes out gold particles from the dust at the doors of goldsmiths).

Bhasmāṅkura—from a Śaiva fallen ascetic and a śūdra prostitute; called Gurava by the Jātiviveka.

Manyu—from a vaiśya and a kṣatriya female; called *Tāvaḍia* (thief catcher).

Romika—from malla and an āvartaka woman; called Lonār in modern times (manufacturer of salt).

Śālākya or *Śākalya* from a *mālākāra* and *kāyastha* woman ; called *Maniar*.

Śuddha-Mārjaka—called *Māndali* (who gains livelihood by singing and playing on musical instruments).

Śindolaka or *spandālīka*, from a *śūdra* male and a *māgadha* female, called *Raṅgārī* (dyer).

In ancient times each of the principal *varṇas* has numerous sub-castes, based upon difference of country, occupation, sect and other causes. For example, *brāhmanas* are first divided into ten classes, five of them being *Gaudas*²¹⁴ and five *Drāviḍas*. Among the *Drāviḍa brāhmanas*, the *Mahārāṣṭra brāhmanas* are again subdivided into numerous sub-castes such as the *Cit-pāvana* (or *Konkanastha*), *Karhāḍe*, *Deśastha*, *Devarukhe* etc. It is said that in *Gujarat* there are 84 subcastes of *brāhmanas*,²¹⁵ most of which do not interdine nor intermarry. There is often a further distinction among the members of the same subcaste, viz. those who follow the priestly occupation and those who do not. The spirit of exclusiveness and ideas of superiority that arose in *vedic* times gradually led on to further and further divisions and subdivisions of people owing to geographical situation and other²¹⁶ causes. It appears that probably even in ancient times the *brāhmanas* of the north looked down upon the *brāhmanas* in eastern countries like *Magadha*. Vide notes 31-32 above and *Fick* (pp. 213-214). The *Matsyapurāṇa* (16. 16) says that *brāhmanas* who dwell in *Mleccha* countries, in *Trisāṅku*, *Barbara*, *Oḍra* (*Orissa*), *Andhra* (*Teliṅgaṇa*), *Takka*, *Draviḍa* and *Konkaṇa* are not to be invited at *śrāddhas*.²¹⁷

214. द्राविडाश्चैव तैलङ्गाः कर्नाटा मध्यदेशगाः । गुर्जराश्चैव पञ्चैते द्राविडाः पञ्च कथ्यते ॥ सारस्वताः कान्यकुब्जा उत्कला मैथिलाश्च ये । गौडाश्च पञ्चधा चैव दश विमाः प्रकीर्तिताः ॥ सहास्रिखण्ड । (section of the *स्कन्दपुराण*) उत्तरार्ध X. 2-3 (ed. by Dr. Da Cunha) ; vide *Wilson's 'Indian castes'* vol. II. p. 17 where the names slightly differ.

215. *Sherring*, vol. I. p. 99. gives the names of these 84 subcastes and *Wilson* in '*Indian castes*' vol. II. pp. 92 ff. adds more bringing the total to 160.

216. Vide *Bombay Presidency Gazetteer*, vol. 9 p. 18 (for *Sārasvatas* of *Panjab* having 470 subdivisions). *Wilson* ('*Indian castes*' vol. II. p. 126) was informed that there were 469 subcastes of *Sārasvata brāhmanas* and he enumerates these at pp. 127-133.

217. कृतघ्नाऽस्ति कांस्तद्वन्लेच्छदेशनिवासिनः । त्रिशङ्कुर्वरोद्गन्धान् टक्कद्रविड-कोङ्कणान् ॥ *मत्स्यपुराण* 16. 16.

Among kṣatriyas there are several subdivisions, such as those claiming descent from the Sun or the Moon and those that call themselves to be Agnikulas (vide Sherring, vol. I. p. 120 ff. and Tod's Rajasthan vol. I chapter VII for lists of royal tribes). The Paramāras have 35 branches, Guhilots 24 branches. Chahmanas 26 branches, Solankis 16 branches and so on.

Even among comparatively late works the total number of subcastes enumerated does not go beyond even two hundred. For example, Wilson in 'Indian castes' vol. I pp. 65-70 mentions only 134 castes with their Sanskrit and modern Marathi names as gathered from the Jātiviveka, Mādhava-kalpalatā, Paraśu-rāma-pratāpa and other works. It is only in the census reports prepared at great expense by the British Government after elaborate efforts and organization that the great complexity of the caste system in modern India is laid bare to the eye. But this work cannot, by reason of its limited scope, go into these varied and complex details of the hundreds of castes that exist in the several provinces of India.

CHAPTER III

THE DUTIES, DISABILITIES AND PRIVILEGES OF THE VARNAS

The duties and privileges of *varnas* occupy a very prominent place in all works on Dharmaśāstra. The study (of the Vedas), offering sacrifices and giving gifts are said to be the duties absolutely enjoined on the brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya and vaiśya,²¹⁸ while each of these three varṇas has certain peculiar privileges, which are its principal means of livelihood. Teaching Vedas, officiating at sacrifices and receiving gifts—these are the privileges of brāhmaṇas; the profession of arms and protection of the people are the peculiar privileges of kṣatriyas; agriculture, rearing cattle, trade and money-lending are the peculiar privileges of vaiśyas. The first three viz. study, sacrifices and liberality are said to be the dharmas of all *dvijas* and the other actions such as teaching the Veda are said to be the *vr̥tti* or *jīvikā* (means of livelihood) of the *dvijas*. The consequence of this bifurcation is that if the first three are not performed or are neglected, the person concerned was deemed to incur sin, while a brāhmaṇa is not bound necessarily to earn his livelihood by all or any one of the three viz. teaching, officiating at a sacrifice or receiving gifts.²¹⁹ A few words on each of these duties and privileges must be said at this stage.

Study (of Vedas). It has been already stated (p. 38) that brāhmaṇa and learning had become indissolubly connected even in early Vedic periods. We see in the Śatapatha Br. and in the Upaniṣads that certain kings had attained eminence as philosophers or students of *brahma-vidyā* and then even learned brāhmaṇas came to them as pupils. For example, Yājñavalkya learnt from Janaka (Śat. Br. XI. 6. 21. 5), Bālāki Gārgya from

218. द्विजातीनामध्ययनमिज्या दानम् । ब्राह्मणस्याधिकाः प्रवचनयाजनप्रतिग्रहाः । पूर्वेषु नियमस्तु । राज्ञोधिकं रक्षणं सर्वभूतानाम् । वैश्यस्याधिकं कृषिवणिक्पाशुपाल्यकुसीदम् । गौतम X. 1-3, 7, 50 ; vide also Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 10. 5-8, Baud. Dh. S. I. 10. 2-5, Vas. II. 13-19, Manu I. 88-90, X. 75-79, Yāj. I. 118-119, Viṣṇu Dh. S. II. 10-15, Atri 13-15, Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa 28. 3-8.

219. पूर्वाण्यध्ययनादीनि अवश्यकर्तव्यानि । अकुर्वन्मत्यवैति कुर्वन्श्चाभ्युदेति । प्रवचनादीनि तु वृत्त्यर्थानि । अतोऽकरणे न मत्यवायः । करणे नाभ्युदयः । हरदत्त on गौ. X. 3 ; अत इज्यादीन्यवश्यं कर्तव्यानि न प्रतिग्रहादीनि । मिता० on या. I. 118.

Ajātaśatru, king of Kāśī (Br. Up. II. 1 and Kauṣītaki Up. IV), Śvetaketu Āruṇeya from Pravāhana²²⁰ Jaivali (Chān. Up. V. 3), five brāhmaṇas from Āśvapati, king of Kekaya (Chān. V. 11). In Br. Up. (IV. 2. 1) Janaka is described by Yājñavalkya as one who had studied the Vedas and Upaniṣads.²²¹ From this it may be inferred that some kṣatriyas at least spent a good deal of time in the study of religious and philosophical doctrines. The conclusion²²² that is sometimes

220. प्रवाहण जैवलि says in छान्दोग्य V. 3. 7 that पञ्चाग्निविद्या was not known to ब्राह्मणसु till he imparted it to गौतम ' यथा मा त्वं गौतमावदो यथेयं न प्राकृ त्वत्तः पुरा विद्या ब्राह्मणान्गच्छति तस्मात् सर्वेषु लोकेषु क्षत्रस्यैव प्रज्ञासनमभूदिति ' ; vide बृह. उप. VI. 2. 8. where similar words occur about the same विद्या.

221. एवं बृन्दारक आढ्यः सन्नधीतवेद् उक्तोपनिषत्क इतो विमुच्यमानः क्व गमिष्य-सीति नाहं तद्भगवन्वेद् यत्र गमिष्यामीति । बृह. उ. IV. 2. 1.

222. Vide Deussen's ' Das System des Vedānta ', 1883, (pp. 18-19) ' the real cherisher of those thoughts was originally the caste of the kṣatriyas, rather than the caste of the priests. Over and over again we come across the situation that the brāhmaṇa asks the kṣatriya for information ' and Deussen refers only to six passages (Br. Up. II. 1, VI. 2, Ch. Up. V. 3 and V. 11 and Kauṣītaki Up. I. 1 and IV. 1). Vide also ' Philosophy of the Upanishads ' (translated by Geden, 1905, pp. 17-19). In the first place these are too few passages out of the vast Upaniṣad literature to found the sweeping generalisation in which the German *savant* indulges. In the second place in Br. Up. II. 1 and Kauṣītaki Up. IV. there is no statement that brahmavidyā was known only to kṣatriyas; on the contrary Ajātaśatru expresses surprise that a brāhmaṇa should approach a kṣatriya for the expounding of brahmavidyā and says that this is opposed to the natural (or usual) order of affairs. This shows that Ajātaśatru was an exception and that brāhmaṇas usually taught brahmavidyā. In Kauṣītaki I. 1. and Ch. Up. V. 11 all that is narrated is that Gautama Śvetaketu learnt from Citra Gārgyaṇi and certain śrotṛiyas like Aupamanyava learnt Vaidānaravidyā from Āśvapati Kaikeya. But nothing is said here about brahmavidyā being first known to kṣatriyas only. In Br. Up. VI. 2 and Ch. Up. V. 11 it is no doubt stated that ' this Vidyā ' was not known to any brāhmaṇa till then; but ' this vidyā ' does not mean the whole of the philosophy of brahma, but only that particular doctrine which bears the name of pañcāgnividya. This vidyā no doubt propounds the doctrine of transmigration in a figurative and somewhat picturesque way. But that doctrine is elsewhere elaborated by brāhmaṇas like Yājñavalkya to the brāhmaṇas in king Janaka's court and to Janaka himself (vide Br. Up. III. 2. 13 and IV. 4. 3-4). Nor can it be said that the doctrine of transmigration was not at all known before the Upaniṣads. The same views are echoed by Sir R. G. Bhandarkar in ' Verhandlungen des VII

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drawn by certain writers that kṣatriyas or kings were the pioneers in brahmavidyā cannot be accepted as correct. The germs of the philosophy of the Upaniṣads are seen in the later hymns of the R̥gveda, in the Atharvaveda and in some of the Brāhmaṇa treatises. The Upaniṣads are full of brāhmaṇas who independently propounded various aspects of *brahma-vidyā* and there is no reason to suppose that the few kṣatriyas referred to as masters of the vidyā were the only persons who first attained to that position. There are hardly any ancient passages to show that vaiśyas devoted any portion of their time to veda study. The Kāthaka-Saṃhitā²²³ (IX. 16) indicates that all varṇas studied the Veda since it speaks of a person not a brāhmaṇa, having studied (Vedic) lores and yet not shining (by his learning).

As to brāhmaṇas the matter stands thus. The Nirukta (II. 4) contains four²²⁴ verses (which are called Vidyāsūkta), the first of which says that *vidyā* came to the brāhmaṇa and requested him to guard her as his treasure. The Mahābhāṣya²²⁵ of Patañjali quotes as an *āgama* (Vedic passage) the words 'a brāhmaṇa should study and understand without any motive (of profit) dharma, the Veda with its six subsidiary lores (viz. phonetics etc.)'. Manu IV. 147 says 'a brāhmaṇa should always and assiduously study the Veda alone; that (Veda study) is his highest dharma; everything else is inferior *dharma*'. Yāj. (I. 198) observes 'the Creator created brāhmaṇas for the preservation of the vedas, for the satisfaction of the

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Internationalen Orientalisten Congresses zu Wien (Arische Sec. pp. 108-109) and in 'Vaiṣṇavism and Śaivism' p. 9 'Kṣatriyas engaged themselves in active speculation on religious matters about the time of the Upaniṣads and are mentioned as the original possessors of the new knowledge,' and the learned Doctor refers only to Ch. Up. V. 3 and V. 11. It may be stated that Hopkins (in 'Ethics of India' 1924 p. 63), Barth (Religions of India p. 65) and Vedic Index (vol. II p. 206) do not subscribe to these views of Deussen and Bhandarkar.

223. ऋग्वेदो विद्यामन्त्रस्य नेव रोचेत स एतांश्चतुर्होतृनरण्यं परेत्य दुर्मस्तम्ब-
मुद्रयथ्य ब्राह्मणं दक्षिणतो निषाद्य व्याचक्षीत । काठकसं. IX. 16.

224. The same four verses occur in Vas. Dh.S.II. 8-11, three of them except 'adhyāpitā ye' in Viṣṇu Dh. S. 29. 9-10 and 30. 47; Manu II. 114-115 expresses the ideas of two out of them, but in different words.

225. ब्राह्मणेन निष्कारणो धर्मः षडङ्गो वेदोऽध्येयो ज्ञेय इति । महाभाष्य (vol. I. p. 15).

gods and pitrs, for the safeguarding of dharma.' Atri (25) contains the same idea. Other²²⁶ sages say that he in whose family Veda (Vedic study) and vedi (consecration of fires for śrauta rites) are given up for three generations becomes a durbrāhmaṇa (an unworthy or bad brāhmaṇa). The Tai. S. (II. 1. 10. 1) prescribes a rite for a durbrāhmaṇa in whose family cessation of drinking soma occurred for generations and who himself desired to drink soma.

Teaching the Veda—It is probable that in very remote times the son was taught the Veda by his father. The story of Śvetaketu Āruṇeya (Chāndogya V. 3. 1. and VI. 1. 1-2 and Br. Up. VI. 2. 1) shows that he learnt all the Vedas from his father and the legend in the Br. Up. (V. 2. 1) that the gods, men and *asuras* learnt from their father Prajāpati points in the same direction.²²⁷ Rg. VII. 103. 5 shows that instruction was oral and consisted in the pupil repeating the words uttered by the teacher.²²⁸ Whatever may have been the case in very remote times, from the times of the Brāhmaṇa literature and in the times of the dharmaśāstras teaching Vedic literature was almost universally in the hands of brāhmaṇas. Some kṣatriya teachers or philosophers are referred to in the Śatapatha (VIII. 1. 4. 10 and XI. 6. 2) and elsewhere, but they are generally held in low esteem. The Āp. Dh. S.²²⁹ (II. 2. 4. 25-28) lays down that the brāhmaṇa alone can be the teacher (of a brāhmaṇa), but in distress (i. e. in the absence of a brāhmaṇa teacher), a brāhmaṇa may learn from a kṣatriya or vaiśya, but the only service (which as a pupil) he should render to a kṣatriya or vaiśya teacher is to go after him (and not shampooing his feet etc.) and after the brāhmaṇa finishes his study, the brāhmaṇa may go in front

226. अथाप्युदाहरन्ति-यस्य वेदश्च वेदी च विच्छिद्येते त्रिपुरुषम् । स वै दुर्ब्राह्मणो नाम यश्चैव वृषलीपतिः । बौधायनगृह्यपरिभाषा I. 10. 5-6. This is quoted as Yama's by Aparārka pp. 286, 449. Ausanasa (chap. IV p. 524, Jiv.) has the verse, but the last pāda is आद्रादौ न कदाचन. Vide for दुर्ब्राह्मण the following आश्विनं धूम्रललाममालभेत् यो दुर्ब्राह्मणः सोमं पिपासेत् । आश्विनौ वै देवानामसोमपावास्तां तौ पश्चात्सोमपीथं प्राप्तुताम् । तै. सं. II. 1. 10. 1; vide also तै. सं. II. 1. 5. 5 ऐन्द्राग्रं पुनरुत्सृष्टमालभेत् य आ तृतीयात्पुरुषात् सोमं न पिबेत् ।

227. त्रयः प्राजापत्याः प्रजापतौ पितरि ब्रह्मचर्यमूषुर्देवा मनुष्या अमुरा उषित्वा ब्रह्मचर्यं देवा ऊचुः । बृ. उ. V. 2. 1.

228. यदेषामन्यो अन्यस्य वाचं शाक्तस्येव वदति शिक्षमाणः । ऋ. VII. 103. 5.

229. ब्राह्मण आचार्यः स्मर्यते तु । आपादि ब्राह्मणेन राजन्ये वैश्ये बाध्ययनम् । अनुगमनं च पश्चात् । तत् ऊर्ध्वं ब्राह्मण एवाग्रे गतौ स्यात् । आप. ध. सू. II. 2. 4. 25-28.

(of his kṣatriya teacher). Gaut. (VII. 1-3) and Manu (X, 1, II. 241) lay down the same rules. Manu (II. 242) adds that a perpetual student (naiṣṭhika brahmacārī) should not stay as a pupil with a teacher who is not a brāhmaṇa and that a brāhmaṇa may learn even from a śūdra a useful or efficacious craft (II. 238). The profession of teaching the Veda could not have brought much money or wealth to brāhmaṇas, since very great emphasis was laid, as we shall see later, on teaching without any prior agreement about payment. It was the privilege of a brāhmaṇa alone to officiate as a priest. Jaimini²³⁰ says that, as the kṣatriya and vaiśya cannot be priests (ṛtviks), the sattra (a sacrifice extending over many days or years) could be performed only by brāhmaṇas. The Kātyāyana Śrauta-sūtra uses a similar argument. When Viśvāmitra agreed to perform a sacrifice for Trisāṅku who had been cursed to be a cāṇḍāla, the Rāmāyaṇa²³¹ says that the gods and sages would not accept the oblations. It is doubtful whether the same rigid rule prevailed in ancient Vedic days. In Rg. X. 98. 7 it is said that Devāpi was the purohita of Śantanu and the Nirukta (II. 10) adds that Devāpi and Śantanu were brothers and descendants of Kuru. So, according to the Nirukta at least, a kṣatriya could be a purohita in Vedic times. It may be admitted that the Rg. itself does not expressly say that they were brothers. In modern times many writers often speak of brāhmaṇas as the priestly caste or as priests. But this is not a very accurate statement. All brāhmaṇas never were nor are priests; besides even in modern times when caste is so rigid all priests in all temples and shrines are not brāhmaṇas. Some brāhmaṇas became the family priests (purohitas) of kings, many engaged as ṛtviks at solemn śrauta sacrifices or at domestic rites and ceremonies. Temple priests are comparatively a later institution and they were generally looked down upon in olden times and are regarded as inferior even in modern times.²³² Manu (III. 152) says that a devalaka i. e. a brāhmaṇa who took

230. ब्राह्मणानां वेत्तरयोरतिविज्ञाभावात् । जैमिनि VI. 6. 18 ; ब्राह्मणा ऋत्विजो भक्षप्रतिषेधादितरयोः । कात्या. श्रौ. I. 2. 28.

231. क्षत्रियो याजको यस्य चण्डालस्य विशेषतः । कथं सद्सि भोक्तारो हविस्तस्य सुरर्षयः ॥ बालकाण्ड 59, 13-14.

232. देवार्चनपरो विमो वित्तार्थी वत्सरत्रयम् । असौ देवलको नाम हस्यकण्डेषु गहितः ॥ देवकोशोपजीवी च नाम्ना देवलको भवेत् । अपांक्तयः स विज्ञेयः सर्वकर्मसु सर्वदा ॥ देवल quoted in स्मृतिचन्द्रिका II p. 396, the first verse being quoted by अपरार्क also pp. 450, 923.

remuneration to perform service before the image in a temple for three years continuously was unfit to be invited at a śrāddha or to officiate in a sacrifice for gods.

The third means of livelihood permitted to brāhmanas was receiving gifts from a worthy or unblemished person. According to Yama²³³ quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 179) *pratigraha* (receiving gifts) from a worthy person of the three higher varṇas is superior to the acquisition of wealth by officiating as a priest or by teaching. But Manu (X. 109-11) says that *pratigraha* from an unworthy person (or a śūdra) is worse than the act of teaching him or officiating as a priest for him. Very elaborate rules were laid down about gifts i. e. who should receive gifts, from whom gifts may be received and on what occasions and what things were proper subjects of gift. The latter two matters will be discussed in detail later on. Here the rules about the persons to whom gifts should be made and from whom they were to be accepted will be set out. It appears from the Br. Up. (IV. 1.3) that even in those ancient times there were prohibitions against receiving gifts from unworthy persons and officiating as priests for the unworthy. And the Br. Up. (V. 14. 5-6) suggests that it is only the learned who could properly accept large gifts.

In the first place, the ideal set before brāhmanas was one of poverty, of plain living and high thinking, of forsaking the active pursuit of riches and cherishing cultural preservation and advancement. Manu lays down the general rule that when not in distress a brāhmaṇa should acquire wealth only just sufficient to maintain himself and his family, and to enable him to perform his religious duties without causing any harm to others or by as little harm to others as possible and without unduly worrying his own body (IV. 2-3) and then Manu (IV. 7-8) says²³⁴ that a brāhmaṇa householder may

233. प्रतिग्रहाध्यापनयाजनानां प्रतिग्रहं श्रेष्ठतमं वदन्ति । प्रतिग्रहाच्छुष्यति जप्य-
होमैर्यज्ञैश्च तु पापैर्न पुनन्ति वेदाः ॥ यम quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 179.

234. The words 'kusūla' and 'kumbhi' have been variously explained by the commentators; vide Kullūka on Manu IV. 7. According to Kullūka one who has corn sufficient for three years is called 'kusūladhānya' as suggested by Manu X. 7; while 'kumbhīdhānya' is one who has a store of corn for one year. Medhātithi says that there is no restriction to corn only; one who has wealth either in corn or money to satisfy his needs for three years is 'kusūladhānya'; according to Govindarāja, 'kusūladhānya' and 'kumbhīdhānya' are respectively those who have corn for 12 and 6 days. The Mit. on Yaj. I. 128 accepts Govindarāja's explanation.

either accumulate so much grain (but not more) as would fill a kusūla (a granary), or a *kumbhī*²³⁵ or he may have as much corn as would satisfy all his needs for three days or as much as will suffice for the day that is on and that out of these four each succeeding one was superior to each preceding one i. e. one who had no more accumulation of material goods than for the day itself (and who did not care for the morrow) was the best brāhmaṇa. Yāj. I. 128 speaks of a fifth grade viz. a brāhmaṇa should subsist by collecting the ears of corn that are left in the field after the crops are gathered or the single grains of corn so left and Manu (X. 112) says that if a brāhmaṇa cannot maintain himself he may prefer to live on the collection of fallen ears of corn or grains rather than receive gifts. This last mode is designated ṛta by Manu (IV. 5). Manu (IV. 12, 15, 17) lays down that a brāhmaṇa should cultivate supreme contentment and though desirous of happiness should restrain himself (in the pursuit of wealth), he should not, even when in distress, hanker after the acquisition of wealth by excessive attachment or by doing what is forbidden or by accepting gifts from any person whatever (of blemished character etc.) and he should give up pursuits that are opposed to (cause obstacles in) his devotion to Vedic study. Yāj. (I. 129) says the same thing in more concise language. Vyāsa prescribes that a brāhmaṇa should seek to narrow down his means of livelihood and should not hanker after excess of wealth; if he sets about accumulation of wealth he loses the (glorious) status of brāhmaṇya.²³⁶ The Mahābhārata says that when a brāhmaṇa has more corn than he would require to satisfy his needs for three years, then he should offer a sacrifice with that wealth and he should not go on accumulating wealth in vain and that accumulation of vast wealth is a calamity for a brāhmaṇa.²³⁷

Gautama (IX. 63), Yāj. (I. 100), Viṣṇu Dh. S. (63. 1), and Laghu-Vyāsa (II. 8) say that a brāhmaṇa should approach a

235. That this ideal of 'kumbhīdhānya' is very ancient is shown by the use of the word kumbhīdhānya in the Mahābhāṣya where it is explained as follows (on Pāp. I. 3. 7, vol. I. p. 264) ' कुम्भीधान्यः श्रोत्रिय उच्यते । यस्य कुम्भ्यामेव धान्यं स कुम्भीधान्यः । यस्य पुनः कुम्भ्यां चान्यत्र च नासौ कुम्भीधान्यः . '

236. वृत्तिसङ्कोचमन्विच्छेहेतु धनविस्तरम् । धनलाभे प्रवृत्तस्तु ब्राह्मण्यादेव हीयते ॥ व्यास quoted in परा. मा. I. 1. p. 199 and स्मृतिच. I. p. 173.

237. त्रैवार्षिकाद्या भक्तादधिकं स्याद्द्विजस्य तु । यजेत तेन ब्रह्मणे न वृथा साध-
येद् धनम् ॥ अनुशासन 47. 22 ; अनर्थो ब्राह्मणस्यैव यद् वित्तनिचयो महान् । अनुशासन
61. 19.

king (or a rich man) for his *yogakṣema* (i. e. for his livelihood and support). Manu (IV. 33), Yāj. (I. 130), and Vas. Dh. S. (XII. 2) declare that a brāhmaṇa when oppressed by hunger should seek for help (or money) from a king, from his pupil or from one who is able and willing to offer a sacrifice. But a brāhmaṇa should not receive a gift from an irreligious king or other irreligious donor. This implies that if the brāhmaṇa is not hungry and has sufficient wealth either obtained by inheritance or partition or in any other way he should not go about seeking for wealth and should not receive gifts (Manu IV. 34). If a brāhmaṇa cannot secure gifts from the above three, then he may do so from any other worthy *dvijāti*.²³⁸ When even that is not possible and the brāhmaṇa is in difficulties he was allowed to take a gift from anybody including a śūdra (Manu X. 102-103, Yāj. III. 41); but a brāhmaṇa should not seek gifts from a śūdra for the performance of a sacrifice or for *agnihotra*, as thereby he becomes a cāṇḍāla in another birth (Manu XI. 24 and 42, Yāj. I. 127). A brāhmaṇa trying to support his hungry elders (parents etc.), his dependants (wife, servants etc.), and about to worship gods and honour guests may accept a gift from anybody (except a *patita*), but should not satisfy his own hunger with that wealth (Manu IV. 251, Vas. 14. 13, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 57. 13, Yāj. I. 216). Yāj., however, allowed this even for one's own livelihood. Gaut.²³⁹ (18. 24-25) allows a brāhmaṇa to receive even from a śūdra as much as would enable him to finish marriage ceremonies on which he has embarked or to get materials for a sacrifice when he has begun it. One may take gifts from a śūdra or ugra for paying a fee to one's *guru* at the end of the period of brahmacharya (Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 7. 20-21). A brāhmaṇa was not to seek gifts from a king who was not of kṣatriya lineage nor from butchers, oilmen, keepers of liquor-shops and of brothels nor from courtesans (Manu IV. 84), nor from a king who is avaricious and transgresses the rules of the *śāstras*²⁴⁰ (Yāj. I. 140, Manu IV. 87). The Smṛtis lay down

238. प्रशस्तानां स्वकर्मसु द्विजातीनां ब्राह्मणो भुञ्जति। प्रतिगृह्णीयाच्च। गौतम 17.1-2.

239. इत्यादानं विवाहसिद्धयर्थं धर्मतन्त्रसंयोगे च शूद्रात्। गौतम 18. 24.

240. Vide Par. M. I. 1. p. 199 for quotations from Sāṃvarta, the Skandapurāṇa, the Viṣṇu-dharmottara condemning the receipt of gifts from irreligious kings. In Anuśāsana 93. 94 the sages say to king Viṣṇudarbhī 'राजन् प्रतिग्रहो राज्ञां मध्वास्वादो विषोपमः। तज्जानमानः कस्मात्त्वं कुक्षये नः प्रहोमेनम् ॥'. यस्य राजस्तु विषये ओत्रियः सीदति क्षुधा। तस्यापि तत्क्षुधा राष्ट्रमचिरेणैव सीदति ॥ मनु VII. 134.

that it is the duty of the king to support śrotriyas (brāhmanas learned in the Veda) and brāhmanas who are incapable of struggling for their maintenance (Gaut. X. 9-10, Yāj. III. 44, Atri 24) and that if a śrotriya perishes through hunger in the domains of a king, that country would suffer from famine and disease (Manu VII. 134). Yāj. III. 44 lays down that it is the duty of a king to assign a proper means of livelihood to a brāhmana in distress, having regard to the brāhmana's conduct, descent, learning, Vedic study, *tapas*, the members in his family.²⁴¹ The ideal set before brāhmanas in the matter of *pratigraha* (receiving gifts) was that he, who though entitled to accept a gift (on account of his Vedic learning and *tapas*) does not take it, attains to the highest worlds (Yāj. I. 213); and Manu (IV. 186) says that though entitled to accept gifts a brāhmana should not again and again resort to that method, since the spiritual power (due to Vedic study) that he acquires is lost by accepting gifts. Another rule about gifts is laid down in many works as follows. When a donor himself goes to the place of a worthy donee and makes a gift that is the best gift, when a donor calls a donee to his place and makes a gift it is middling and when a donor gives if begged by a donee it is inferior.²⁴² Manu (IV. 188-191) prescribes that a man, who is not learned, is reduced to ashes like fuel if he accepts a gift of gold, land, horses, cows, food, clothes, sesame and ghee, that a brāhmana who, being devoid of learning and *tapas* (regulated life), desires to accept gifts sinks (into Hell) as one who sits in a stone boat sinks in water; and that therefore a brāhmana who is not learned should be afraid of receiving gifts.

241. We find that kings followed these directions from very ancient times. In Karle Inscription No. 13 (E. I. vol. VII. p. 57) and Nasik cave Inscription No. 12 (E. I. Vol. VIII p. 78) king Usavadāta (Rṣabhadatta) proclaims that he gave one lakh of cows and 16 villages to brāhmanas at Prabhāsa and got some of them married at his expense and that he also fed every year a lakh of brāhmanas. In numerous grants of lands and villages the purpose of the grants is said to be to enable the donees to perform the five *Mahāyajñas*, Agnihotra, Vaiśvadeva, the offering of *bali* and *caru* (vide Sarsavni plate of Buddharāja in E. I. vol. 6 p. 298 dated in Kaṭacchuri Sāmvat 361 i. e. 609-10 A. D., Damodarpur plates in E. I. vol. XV. p. 113 dated 443-44 A. D.).

242. अभिगम्योत्तमं दानमाह्वयैव तु मध्यमम् । अधमं याचमानाय सेवादानं तु निष्फलम् ॥ पराशर I. 29; गत्वा यद्दीयते दानं तदनुत्तमफलं स्मृतम् । सहस्रशृणुमाहूते याचिते तु तद्वर्धकम् ॥ quoted by the Mit. and Aparārka (p. 291) on Yāj. I. 203. Vide लज्जुसालावपु quoted by Aparārka p. 291 and Śāntiparva 294. 18-19.

To the same effect are Yāj. (I. 200-202), Vas. Dh. S. (VI. 32), Auśanasa (Jiv. I. p. 521 which is almost the same as Manu IV. 188). Just as a brāhmaṇa who was not learned was enjoined not to accept a gift, so conversely people were asked to make gifts only to learned and worthy men. Even so early as the Śat. Br. this is emphasized as in IV. 3. 4. 15 (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 344) " thus those cows of his are given to him who is fit to receive a dakṣiṇā and not to him who is unfit'. Vide III. 5. 1. 19 (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 114) also. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 6. 15. 9-10) prescribes ' one should invite for dinner in all religious acts brāhmaṇas who are pure and who have studied the Veda and one should distribute gifts at a proper time and place and on occasions of purificatory rites and when there is a worthy acceptor.'²⁴³ To the same effect are Vas. Dh. S. III, 8 and VI. 30, Manu (III. 128, 132 and IV. 31), Yāj. (I. 201), Dakṣa III. 26 and 31.²⁴⁴ The smṛtis say that gifts given to a brāhmaṇa who has not studied the Veda or who is avaricious and deceitful are fruitless and lead the donor to hell (Manu IV. 192-194, Atri 152, Dakṣa III. 29). Manu (XI. 1-3) says that nine kinds of *snātaka* brāhmaṇas who are poor are the primary objects of the gift of food and fees inside the sacrificial altar ; while to others food and wealth may be given outside the altar (*bahirvedi*).

An exception was made in the case of gifts made without request from the donee. What has been offered unasked may be accepted even from one who is guilty of bad actions, except from unchaste women, impotent persons and *patita* (outcastes or persons guilty of *mahāpātakas*)—Yāj. I. 215, Manu IV. 248-49, Āp. Dh. S. I. 6. 19. 11-14 (where two verses are quoted from a *Purāṇa* which are almost the same as Manu IV. 248-249), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 57. 11. Many persons are mentioned in the smṛtis from whom gifts (particularly of food) were not to be accepted (vide Manu IV. 205-224, Vas. Dh. S. XIV. 2-11).

Another rule about gifts was that a person should prefer a learned brāhmaṇa who is his neighbour for making a gift to one who is not near ; if he did not do so, he incurred sin ; but there was no blame in passing over an ignorant or foolish

243. शुचीन्मन्त्रकृतः सर्वकृत्येषु भोजयेत् । देशतः कालतः शौचतः सम्यक्प्रतिग्रहीतुम् इति दानानि प्रतिपादयति । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 15. 9-10.

244. यद्यदिष्टतमं लोके यच्चास्य दयितं भवेत् । तत्तद्वृणवते देयं तदेवाक्षयमिच्छता ॥ दक्ष III. 31. This is also संवर्त 44-45, अश्वशासनपर्व 59. 7, मार्कण्डेय 35. 52-53, मत्स्यपुराण 72. 39.

brāhmaṇa who stays near in favour of a worthy but distant brāhmaṇa.²⁴⁵ Vide Vas. Dh. S. III. 9-10, Manu VIII. 392 (which prescribes a fine of one *māṣa* for this), Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti IV. 35-38, Bṛhaspati-smṛti 60 and Laghu-Śātātapa 76-79, Gobhila-smṛti II. 66-69. Devala quoted by Aparārka p. 288 and Par. M. I. part 1 p. 181 say that that brāhmaṇa is a *pātra* (worthy to receive a gift) who is pure in three respects (viz. as to his parents and his guru), whose means of livelihood are slender, who is tender-hearted and of restrained senses. Vas. Dh. S. VI. 26 and Yāj. I. 200 also define *pātra* similarly.

It is not to be supposed that the ideal of poverty and non-acceptance of gifts except under compelling circumstances was only an ideal hardly ever acted upon at any time or in any part of the country. Even in the 20th century rural India has villages with a considerable population of brāhmaṇas where many śrotriya (learned in the Veda) and *pandits* (those who study śāstras like grammar, logic, *mīmāṃsā*) are still found who are content with what little patrimony they have got, who engage in the profession of teaching the Veda and śāstras in accordance with ancient rules and who do not go about seeking gifts nor accept invitations for dinner at śrāddhas. In the Śāntiparva 199 brāhmaṇas are divided into two sorts, viz. those who are *pravṛtta* (i. e. engage in all sorts of activities for acquiring wealth) and those who are *nivṛtta* and verse 40 defines these latter as those who do not resort to *pratigraha* (acceptance of gifts).

Though *pratigraha* was a special privilege of brāhmaṇas, gifts could be made by anybody to anybody. Yāj. I. 6 says that giving to a worthy person at a proper time is the complete definition of dharma and Viśvarūpa adds that gifts could be made by anybody; but the merit secured by making a gift depended upon the worth and caste of the donee. Gaut. (V. 18),²⁴⁶ Manu VII. 85, Veda-Vyāsa IV. 42, Dakṣa III.

245. ब्राह्मणातिक्रमो नास्ति मुखे सन्त्रिविवर्जिते । ज्वलन्तमाग्निस्तृण्य नहि भस्मानि ह्वयेते ॥ बो. ध. सू. I. 5. 98, वेदव्यास IV. 37 (reads विप्रे वेदविवर्जिते), वसिष्ठ III. 10, गोभिलस्मृति II. 68-69. The मत्स्यपुराण 227. 7 also prescribes a fine for ब्राह्मणातिक्रम 'दिग्भोज्ये तु संप्रति प्रतिवेद्ममभोजयन् । हिरण्यमाषकं दण्ड्यः पापे नास्ति व्यतिक्रमः ॥'

246. समहिषुणसाहस्रानन्त्यानि फलान्यब्राह्मणब्राह्मणश्रोत्रियवेदपारगेभ्यः । गौ. V. 18; सममब्राह्मणे दानं हिषुणं ब्राह्मणभुवे । प्राधीते शतसाहस्रमनन्तं वेदपारगे ॥ मनु VII. 85; वेदव्यास IV. 42 and Dakṣa read सहस्रगुणमाचार्ये which reading is noted by Kullūka also and Vedavyāsa (IV. 43-47) explains the words ब्राह्मणभुव, आचार्य and वेदपारग.

28 say that a gift given to a brāhmaṇa (who is only so by caste, but is not learned), to a śrōtriya (or ācārya) and to one who has completely mastered all the Vedas (with their subsidiary lores) respectively confers merit which is twice, a hundred thousand times or an infinite number of times more than the merit conferred by a gift to a non-brāhmaṇa. Gautama²⁴⁷ (V. 19-20) and Baudhāyana II. 3. 24 further make it obligatory to give outside the sacrificial altar according to one's ability a portion of one's wealth to a brāhmaṇa, śrōtriya and veda-pārāga when they seek help for giving a dakṣiṇā to their teacher (at the end of the period of studenthood), for their own marriage, for medicine, for their own maintenance (that day), for a sacrifice, for their own study or journey, and when everything has been given in a Viśvajit sacrifice and that one must give cooked food to all others who beg for it (except brāhmaṇa, śrōtriya and vedapārāga). Manu (XI. 1-3) gives practically the same rule. In the Vaiśvadeva the householder was enjoined to give food to every one including even dogs and cāṇḍālas, as we shall see later on (under²⁴⁸ Vaiśvadeva). Medhātithi on Manu IV. 5 says that when a person makes a gift through compassion it is not the *dāna* and *pratigraha* spoken of by the śāstra; just as when a man gives instruction as to what is beneficial he does not care to see what the caste of the person to be benefitted by the advice is, so a gift made through compassion is made irrespective of caste; and that when non-brāhmaṇas reduced to a helpless condition take what is given by others, it cannot be said that they are assuming to themselves the livelihood by *pratigraha* which is a peculiar means of livelihood for brāhmaṇas.²⁴⁹

247. सुर्वथनिवेशौषधार्थ-वृत्तिशील-यक्ष्यमाणाययनाध्वसंयोगवैश्वजितेषु द्रव्यसंविभागो बहिर्वेदि । भिक्षमाणेषु कृताञ्जमितरेषु ॥ गौतम V. 19. 20; बौ. ध. सू. II. 3. 24 reads सुब्राह्मणश्रोत्रियवेदपारोगेभ्यः before सुर्वथं and यथाशक्ति कार्यः before बहिर्वेदि. Vide रघुवंश V. 24 ' सुर्वथमर्थी श्रुतपारदृष्ट्वा रघोः सकाशाद्वनवाप्य कामम् । '.

248. सर्वान्वैश्वदेवे भागिनः कुर्वीता श्वचण्डालेभ्यः । आप. ध. सू. II. 4. 9. 5.

249. ननु च करुणया दानमदृष्टायैव । नेति ब्रूमः । न तत्र दानधर्मः । किं तर्हि करुणान्यासात्परोपकाराद्वा । तत्र यथा । हितोपदेशादावनुग्रहादस्य विधिर्जात्यादि नापेक्षते तद्वत्करुणया दाने । तथा च शिष्टा नैवविधे दाने वेदतत्त्वार्थविदुषे ब्राह्मणायित्येतद्वदुच्यन्ते । अत एवाब्राह्मणा अपि दैन्यमापन्नाः परेण दत्तं गृह्णन्ता न ब्राह्मणवृत्तिं प्रतिग्रहमाश्रिता भवन्ति । मेधातिथि on मनु IV. 5. The words वेदतत्त्वार्थं quoted here are from मनु III. 96. The Par. M. (I part I p. 189) quotes a verse from the Mahābhārata; पङ्कजवधधिरा मुक्ता स्पाथिनोपहृताश्च ये । भर्तृग्यास्ते महाराज न तु देयः प्रतिग्रहः ॥ The idea is that प्रतिग्रह is a privilege, while charity to the poor and the diseased is due to *dayā* (compassion).

In spite of the noble ideal set before brāhmanas it appears that, owing to the growth of the Brāhmaṇa population and the paucity of gifts and invitations to officiate as priests, the strict rules about *dāna* and *pratigraha* had to be relaxed and in course of time it came to be said that a brāhmana, whether learned or ignorant, was to be a donee and may accept gifts without any scruples. The first inroad²⁵⁰ was made by the rule that in rites meant for gods the character and learning of brāhmanas need not be deeply inquired into, but that such enquiry was proper only when they were to be invited for śrāddha and other rites for the dead, the only exceptions being that a brāhmana, who is a thief or is guilty of a *mahāpātaka*, or is impotent or an atheist was not to be invited even in rites for the gods (vide Manu III. 149-150). Gradually such views as the following came to be recommended. The Skandapurāṇa²⁵¹ as quoted by Aparārka (p. 455) makes Śiva say to Pārvatī ' the Vedic revelation is that śrāddha (food) should be given (to a brāhmana) after inquiry (into his learning and character), but straightforward action is better than scrutiny. When one offers śrāddha straightforwardly without scrutiny, his pitṛs are satisfied and also gods.' The Vṛddha-Gautama smṛti (chap. III pp. 512-513 and 518, Jiv.) says ' Brāhmanas, whether well conducted or of bad conduct, whether vulgar or of polished intellect, should not be disrespected like fires covered with ashes. Just as fire in whatever condition it may be, is a great deity, so a brāhmana is a great deity in whatever condition he may be.'²⁵² ' The wise should not despise brāhmanas, whether they be squint-eyed, humpbacked, dwarfs, indigent or diseased, since they are

250. ब्राह्मणास्तु परीक्षेत क्षत्रियो दानधर्मवित् । दैवे कर्मणि पित्र्ये तु न्याय्यमाहुः परीक्षणम् ॥ अशुभासन 90. 2. An instructive parallel may be found in Article XXVI of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Anglican Church, whereby sacraments administered by a priest who is sinful do not suffer in efficacy.

251. आहं परीक्ष्य दातव्यमित्येषा वैदिकी श्रुतिः । परीक्षणाच्च रम्भोर आर्जवं गुणवत्तरम् । अपरीक्ष्य तु यो दद्याच्छ्राद्धमार्जवमास्थितः । तस्य गुण्यन्ति पितरो देवताश्च न संशयः quoted by अपरार्क p. 455.

252. दुर्वृत्ता वा सुवृत्ता वा प्राकृता वा सुसंस्कृताः । ब्राह्मणा नावमन्तव्या भस्मच्छका इवाग्नयः ॥ काणाः कुब्जा वामनाश्च दुरिद्धा व्याधितास्तथा । नावमान्या द्विजाः प्राज्ञैर्मम रूपा हि ते द्विजाः ॥ वृद्धगौतम (chap. III. pp. 512, 513) ; vide वनपर्व 200. 88-89 दुर्वृत्ता वा सुवृत्ता वा प्राकृताः संस्कृतास्तथा । अयः ॥ यथा इमंज्ञाने दीप्तौजाः पावको मेव द्रव्यति । एवं विद्वानविद्वान्वा ब्राह्मणो दैवतं महत् ॥

my forms (i. e. of Kṛṣṇa)'. The Anuśāsanaparva (152.19)²⁵³ says 'a brāhmaṇa who is not learned is a god and he is a worthy object for gifts and is a great purifier; a learned brāhmaṇa is a greater god (than an unlearned one).'

As already said above teaching could have brought very little wealth. There was no state educational system as in modern times with stability of tenure and graded rates of salary. Nor was there any Copyright Act under which a learned man could make money by writing books for students and the general public. The brāhmaṇas had no organised corporate body like the Anglican Church with its hierarchy of Archbishops, Bishops and other divines, nor was there in ancient India any practice of making wills whereby large estates came to the Church as in England (where statutes of Mortmain had to be passed to prevent enormous estates from going to the Church).²⁵⁴ The emoluments of officiating priests and gifts given by charitably disposed persons must have been fitful and offered only a precarious means of livelihood, as they depended upon the volition of others and as the smṛtis recommended that even in śrāddha too many brāhmaṇas should not be invited.²⁵⁵ Besides all brāhmaṇas could not have possessed the memory, intelligence and patience required to master the Vedic Literature after intensive study for decades of years. Therefore, there is no wonder that many brāhmaṇas were compelled by the force of circumstances to pursue for their livelihood avocations other than the three prescribed ones. From ancient times this was recognised by the dharmaśāstra works. Gaut. (VII. 6 and 7) says that if a brāhmaṇa cannot maintain himself by means of the three peculiar modes of livelihood viz. teaching or officiating as a priest for even an unworthy person or by receiving gifts, then he should maintain himself by doing the work peculiar to a kṣatriya (i. e. by fighting and protecting people) and if even that is not possible then by following the avocations of a vaiśya and Gaut. VII. 26 ordains that a kṣatriya may resort to the profession of the vaiśya in similar circumstances. Baudhāyana

253. अविद्वान् ब्राह्मणो देवः पात्रं वै पावनं महत् । विद्वान् श्रुयस्तरो देवः पूर्णसागर-
सन्निभः । एवं यद्यप्यनिष्टेषु वर्तते सर्वकर्मसु । सर्वथा ब्राह्मणो मान्यो देवतं विद्धि तत्परम् ॥
अनुशासन 152. 19 and 23.

254. Vide Holdsworth's History of English Law (4th ed.) vol. III
p. 87 for the origin of statutes of Mortmain from 1279 A. D. to 51 and
52 Vic. chap. 42.

255. Vide Manu III. 125-126, Gaut. 15. 7-8, Yāj. I. 223.

Dh. S. (II. 2. 77) says the same and then it adds (II. 2. 78 and 80) that Gautama says that it should not be so as the duties of a kṣatriya would be too terrific for a brāhmaṇa and that he should pursue the avocation of a vaiśya. Baudhāyana (I. 1. 20) notes that the profession of arms was practised by the brāhmaṇas of the north. Vas. Dh. S. (II. 22) lays down that persons (of the three higher varṇas) should, if they cannot maintain themselves by the peculiar avocations of their varṇa, resort to the means of livelihood prescribed for the varṇa which is immediately below their own. Manu X. 81-82, Yāj. III. 35, Nārada (ṛnādāna 56), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 54. 28, Śaṅkha-Likhita say the same²⁵⁶ thing. It is further laid down by the same works that a person belonging to a lower varṇa should not resort to the modes of livelihood peculiar to a higher varṇa (*vide* Vas. Dh. S. II. 23, Manu X. 95). The smṛtis further ordain that when the calamity or distress ceases, the person who has taken to the avocations of another varṇa should perform prāyaścitta, should resume his proper avocations and abandon the wealth acquired by him by resorting to improper avocations; *vide* Manu XI. 192-193; Viṣṇu Dh. S. (54. 27-28), Yāj. III. 35, Nārada (ṛnādāna 59-60). Manu (X. 96) prescribes that, if a person of a lower varṇa maintains himself through greed by the avocation²⁵⁷ peculiar to a higher varṇa, the king should confiscate the wealth and should at once banish him from the country. A classical example of the keenness with which good kings were expected to prevent persons of lower varṇas doing the actions allowed only to higher varṇas is furnished by the story of Śambūkā narrated in the Rāmāyaṇa (VII. 73-76.) The Uttararāmacarita of Bhavabhūti echoes the same sentiments. A śūdra²⁵⁸ who engaged in *japa*, *homa*, *tapas* or became an ascetic or repeated (Vedic) *mantras* was to be punished (or killed) by the king and was also guilty of mortal sin. Manu (X. 98) allows a vaiśya, if unable to maintain himself by the pursuits peculiar to his varṇa, to live by means of the

256. आपत्काले मातापितृमृतौ बहुश्रुत्यस्यानन्तरका वृत्तिरिति कल्पः । तस्यानन्तरका वृत्तिः क्षात्रोऽभिमिश्रः । एवमप्यजीवन्वैश्यमुपजीवेत् । शङ्कलल्लित quoted by अपरार्क p. 930.

257. न कथंचन कुर्वति ब्राह्मणः कर्म वार्षलम् । वृषलः कर्म वा ब्राह्मं पतनीये हि ते तयोः ॥ नारद (ऋणादान 57)

258. वश्यो राजा स वै शूद्रो जपहोमपरश्च यः । ततो राजस्य हन्तासौ यथा बह्वेश्व वै जलम् ॥ जपस्तपस्तीर्थयात्रा प्रव्रज्या मन्त्रसाधनम् । देवताराधनं चैव स्त्रीशूद्रपतनानि वद ॥ अजि 19. 136-137 (Ānan. ed.); *vide* वनपर्व 150. 36

actions proper for a śūdra viz. serving members of the twice-born classes. It is also said by Gaut. (VII. 22-24) that a brāhmaṇa may maintain himself in any way if unable to maintain himself (by the three means specially prescribed for him), but he should not resort to the actions peculiar to a śūdra, that according to some ācāryas he may do even those actions when life itself is in danger, but that when he stoops to the actions peculiar to śūdras for maintenance he should not mix himself up with members of that varṇa (by sitting on the same seat with them etc.) or eat articles forbidden to brāhmaṇas (such as leek and garlic) and should not be a mere menial servant. Vide Manu (IV. 4 and 6) and Nārada (ṛṇādāna 57).

According²⁵⁹ to all ancient authorities the special duty of the śūdra was to render service to the twice-born classes, to obtain his livelihood from them and serving a brāhmaṇa conferred greater happiness or benefit on the śūdra than serving a kṣatriya and serving a kṣatriya conferred greater good than serving a vaiśya. According to Gaut. (X. 60-61), Manu (X. 124-125) and others, the śūdra was to wear the old or cast-off clothes, umbrellas, sandals, mattress etc. of his patron and the leavings of food (ucchiṣṭa) were to be given to him. If he became old and unable to do work while serving anyone of the higher varṇas he was to be fed by him whom he had formerly served (Gaut. X. 63). In course of time the position of the śūdra improved. If a śūdra²⁶⁰ was unable to maintain himself and his family by serving *dvijas*, he was allowed to maintain himself by having recourse to crafts like carpentry or drawing or painting pictures etc. Nārada (ṛṇādāna 58) allowed him to perform the work of kṣatriyas and vaiśyas in times of distress. Yāj. (I. 120) also says that, if unable to maintain himself by the service of *dvijas*, the śūdra may carry on the profession of a vaiśya or may take to the various crafts. The Mahābhārata allowed a śūdra²⁶¹ who could not maintain

259. शुश्रूषा शुद्रस्येतेषां वर्णानाम् । पूर्वस्मिन् पूर्वस्मिन्वर्णे निश्चेषं भूयः । आप. घ. I. 1. 1. 7-8; परिचर्या चोत्तरेषाम् । तेभ्यो वृत्तिं लिप्सेत । तत्र पूर्वं परिचरेत् । गौतम X. 57-59; प्रजापतिर्हि वर्णानां दासं शुद्रमकल्पयत् । शान्तिपर्व 60. 28; vide also Vas. Dh. S. II. 20, Manu X. 121-123, Yāj. I. 120, बौ. घ. सू. I. 10. 5, वनपर्व 150. 36.

260. शिल्पाजीवं भुतिं चैव शुद्राणां व्यदधात्प्रभुः । बाहुपुराण 8. 171; शुद्रस्य द्विज-शुश्रूषा सर्वशिल्पानि चाप्यथ । शङ्खस्मृति I. 5; मनु X. 99-100.

261. वागिज्यं पाशुपाल्यं च तथा शिल्पोपजीवनम् । शुद्रस्यापि विधीयन्ते यदा वृत्तिर्न जायते ॥ शान्तिपर्व 295. 4; शुद्रस्य द्विजशुश्रूषा सर्वशिल्पानि वाप्यथ । विक्रयः सर्वपण्यानां शुद्रकर्म उदाहृतम् ॥ उशनस quoted in the स्मृतिच. I. p. 171; vide लघ्वाश्व-लायन 22. 5.

himself by the service of higher varṇas to resort to the avocations of a vaiśya, to rearing cattle and to crafts. Others like Laghu-Āśvalāyana (22. 5), Vṛddha-Hārta (VII. 189, 192) allowed agriculture to the śūdra. The Kālikāpurāṇa quoted in the Gr. R. (p. 479) allowed the śūdra to sell all commodities except honey, skins, lākṣā (lac), wines and flesh, while Bṛhat-Parāśara (p. 101) prohibited the śūdra from selling wine and flesh. Devala quoted in the Mit. (on Yāj. I. 120) prescribes that the śūdra should serve the twice-born and may engage in agriculture, rearing cattle, carrying loads, sale of commodities, drawing and painting, dancing, singing and playing on musical instruments like the flute, lute, drums and tabors.²⁶² The foregoing will show that the śūdra gradually rose in social status so far as occupation was concerned and could follow all occupations except those specially reserved for the brāhmaṇa, so much so that śūdras became even kings and Manu (IV. 61) had expressly to enjoin upon brāhmaṇas not to dwell in the kingdom of a śūdra.²⁶³ The smṛtis however did not like that wealth should be accumulated in the hands of the śūdra (though they were quite willing that kṣatriyas and vaiśyas should command all wealth). Gaut. (X. 64-65) says that the śūdra's accumulation of wealth should be for the support and benefit of the other varṇas. Manu (X. 129) says that a śūdra, even though able to accumulate wealth, should not do so, as (on account of his pride of wealth and his ignorance) he may cause obstructions and trouble to brāhmaṇas. Śūdras were divided into numerous subcastes. But there were two main divisions. One was *aniravasita śūdras* (such as carpenters and blacksmiths) and the other *niravasita śūdras* (like cāṇḍālas); vide note 200 above. Another division of śūdras was into those who were bhojyāṇna (i. e. food prepared by whom could be partaken by brāhmaṇas) and *abhojyāṇna*. In the first were included one's

262. सूद्रधर्मो द्विजातिशुश्रूषा पापवर्जनं कलत्रादिपोषणं कर्षणपशुपालनभारोद्बहन-
पण्यव्यवहार-चित्रकर्म-नृत्य-गीत-वेणु-वीणासुरजमुदङ्गवादनदीनि । देवल in मिता० on
या. I. 120.

263. Compare आप. घ. सू. I. 11. 32. 18 (सूद्रान् सुद्राचरितान् च देशज्ञं सेवेत)
with मनु IV. 61. This dictum of Manu must have been pronounced at
a time when śūdra kings were rare; otherwise it would have no
meaning and brāhmaṇas would have been compelled to leave India. So
it follows that Manu did not hold the view propounded in certain Purā-
ṇas that after the Nandas there would be no kṣatriya kings and only
śūdras will be kings.

slave, one's cowherd, barber, family friend and one who shared with one the crop reared on one's land (vide Yāj. I. 166). It is worthy of note that even the Mit. adds the potter to the above list. All the other śūdras were such that a brāhmaṇa could not take his food. A third and well-known division was into *sacchūdra* (well-conducted) and *asac-chūdra*. The former class included those śūdras who followed good occupations or trade, served *dvijas* and had given up meat and drinking or selling liquor.²⁶⁴ The Śūdrakamalākara (p. 60) says that *asat-śūdras* do not incur sin even if they partake of meat and liquor, provided they do not eat forbidden meat and that there is no lapse if one comes in contact with a śūdra that drinks liquor.

A few words may now be said about brāhmaṇas being allowed to follow the occupations of kṣatriyas and vaiśyas. From very ancient times brāhmaṇas appear to have followed the profession of arms. Pāṇ. (V. 2. 71) teaches²⁶⁵ the formation of the word 'brāhmaṇaka' as applied to a country, which means 'in which Brāhmaṇas follow the profession of arms.' Kaut.²⁶⁶ (IX. 2) quotes the view of the ācāryas that when there are armies composed of brāhmaṇas, kṣatriyas, vaiśyas and śūdras each preceding one is better for enlistment than each subsequent, but Kaut. himself is against this and adds that the enemy may win over the army of brāhmaṇas by prostration before them. Āpastamba was against the idea of brāhmaṇas following the profession of arms. He says (I. 10. 29. 7)²⁶⁷ 'a brāhmaṇa should not catch hold of a weapon even for examining it (much

264. न सुरां सन्धयेद्यस्तु आपणेषु गृहेषु च । न विक्रीणाति च तथा सच्छूद्रो हि स उज्ज्यते । भविष्यपुराण (ब्राह्मण section) chap. 44. 32.

265. Pāṇ. V. 2. 71 is not commented on by Patañjali and the Kāśikā explains the sūtra as above. But it is clear that Patañjali knew a country called Brāhmaṇaka as elsewhere he says (vol. II. p. 298 on Pāṇ. IV 2. 104, Vārtika 30, 'ब्राह्मणको नाम जनपदस्तस्माद्भयं प्राप्नोति । ब्राह्मणकीयः । ').

266. ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियवैश्यशूद्रसैन्यानां तेजःप्राधान्यात् पूर्वं पूर्वं श्रेयः संनाहयितुमित्याचार्याः । नेति कौटिल्यः । प्रणिपातेन ब्राह्मणबलं परोऽभिहारयेत् । कौटिल्य IX. 2.

267. परीक्षार्थेऽपि ब्राह्मण आयुधं नाददीत । आप. ध. I. 10. 29. 7 ; प्राणसंज्ञये ब्राह्मणोऽपि शस्त्रमाददीत । गौ. VII. 25 ; अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । गवार्थे ब्राह्मणार्थे वा वर्णानां वापि संकरे । गृहीयातां विप्रविशौ शस्त्रं धर्मव्यपेक्षया ॥ बौ. ध. II. 2. 80 ; आत्मजाणे वर्णसंवर्गे ब्राह्मणवैश्यौ शस्त्रमाददीयाताम् । वसिष्ठ III. 24.

less for attacking others with it)'. Gaut. (VII. 6) allowed a brāhmaṇa to follow ksatriya's profession in case of distress (āpad) and adds (in VII. 25) that even a brāhmaṇa while still following the peculiar avocation of a brāhmaṇa may wield weapons when his life is in danger. The Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 80) quotes a verse 'for saving cows and brāhmaṇas, for preventing the mixture of varṇas, the brāhmaṇa and vaiśya may take to arms from their concern for dharma.' The Vas. Dh. S. (III. 24) allows a brāhmaṇa to wield a weapon for protecting himself and for preventing confusion or mingling of varṇas. Manu (VIII. 348-349) allows all *dvi-jātis* to resort to weapons where the observance of dharma (or of the duties of varṇas and āśramas) is obstructed (by violent men), when there is a disturbance (due to invasion etc.) involving the twice-born classes, in evil times for protecting one's self, when there is an attack for carrying away cows or other wealth (given as fees) and in order to protect women and brāhmaṇas and he incurs no sin if he kills (for these purposes). Among the heroes of the Mahābhārata there are great warriors and commanders like Droṇa, his son Aśvatthāman, Kṛpa (the maternal uncle of Aśvatthāman) who were brāhmaṇas. The Mahābhārata says that a brāhmaṇa should fight at the order of the king.²⁶⁸ The Śāntiparva (78. 18) calls upon persons of all varṇas to wield arms when the rules for holding society together are broken and when dasyus (robbers or low persons) cause confusion. From ancient times we find brāhmaṇas as commanders and founders of royal dynasties. The famous *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra belonged to the Śuṅga gotra and wrested an empire from the last of the Mauryas about 184 B. C. His line was followed by the Kāpyāyanas, the founder being minister Vāsudeva, a brāhmaṇa, who killed the last Śuṅga about 72 B. C. We learn from the Talagūṇḍa pillar inscription of Kakusthavarman (E. I. Vol. VIII. p. 24) that the founder of the Kadambas, Mayūrasarman, was a brāhmaṇa. In Maratha history there were the Peshwas and other brāhmaṇa warriors and commanders.

Though it is said that a brāhmaṇa in distress may follow the occupation of a vaiśya, there were several restrictions imposed upon brāhmaṇas following the occupations of money-lending, agriculture, trade, and the rearing of cattle, which were prescribed as the privileged occupations of vaiśyas.

268. राज्ञो नियोगाद् योद्धव्यं ब्राह्मणेन विशेषतः । वर्तता क्षत्रधर्मेण ह्येवं धर्मविदो विदुः । शल्यपर्व 65. 42.

As to money-lending, Gaut.²⁶⁹ (X. 5-6) allowed a brāhmaṇa to maintain himself and his family by agriculture, sale of commodities and money-lending only if he did not engage in these personally, but through the agency of others. Vas. Dh. S. (II. 40) enjoins upon brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas not to lend money like usurers and quotes two verses which define usury and say that a userer is a greater sinner than even one who is guilty of brāhmaṇa-murder. Manu (X. 117) also forbids usury to brāhmaṇas and kṣatriyas, but allows them to charge a low rate of interest to persons engaged in low actions. Nārada (ṛṇādāna 111) forbids usury to brāhmaṇas even in the direst calamities. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 9. 27. 10) prescribes a *prāyaścitta*²⁷⁰ for a brāhmaṇa lending money at usurious rates. Bṛhaspati as quoted²⁷¹ in the Gr. R. has a rather amusing verse 'sages have enumerated numerous means of livelihood, but out of all of them money-lending is pre-eminent. There is loss in agriculture due to draught, to the fear of the exactions of the king and the ravages of rats and others, but there is no such loss in money-lending.' It appears that this is only a general or satirical statement and does not recommend money-lending to brāhmaṇas.

The obvious reasons and motives underlying these restrictions on brāhmaṇas were to make them live simple lives, to insist on the necessity and high value to themselves and to society of studying, preserving and augmenting the ancient literature and culture, to emphasize the fact that a highly spiritual life should not be given up for a mere secular life, to prevent the coarsening and hardening of the heart and emotions in a relentless and continuous pursuit of wealth or martial glory.

Agriculture—In the dharmaśāstra works there is a great conflict of views about agriculture as an occupation for

269. कृषिवाणिज्ये वाऽस्वयंकृते । कुसीदं च । गो. X. 5-6 ; ब्राह्मणराजन्वयौ वार्धुषी न दद्याताम् । अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । समर्थं धान्यमुद्धृत्य महार्थं यः प्रयच्छति । स वै वार्धुषिको नाम ब्रह्मवादिषु गृहीतः । ब्रह्महत्यां च वृद्धिं च तुलया समतोलयत् । अतिष्ठद् भ्रूणहा कोट्यां वार्धुषिः समकम्पत । वसिष्ठ II. 40. Vide चौ. ध. सू. I. 5. 93-94 for these two verses ; आपत्स्वपि हि कष्टास्तु ब्राह्मणस्य न वार्धुष्यम् । नारद (कृणादान v. 111)

270. अनार्षी शयने बिभ्रद् ददद्वाह्निं कषाययः । अत्राह्मण इव बन्धित्वा तुणेष्वासति पृष्ठतप् । आप. ध. सू. I. 9. 27. 10.

271. बहवो वर्तनोपाया ऋषिभिः परिकीर्तिताः । सर्वेषामपि चैतेषां कुसीदमधिकं विदुः । अनावृष्ट्या राजभयाद् सुषिकाद्यैरुपद्रवैः । कृष्यादिको भवेद्भानिः कुसीदे सा न विद्यते ॥ बृहस्पति in गृह. र. p. 488

brāhmaṇas. The Vedic Literature does not condemn agriculture in the case of brāhmaṇas. The gambler's song²⁷² (Rg. X. 34) winds up with the exhortation 'do not play with dice, do engage in agriculture, thinking highly of my words (or of wealth), do find joy in wealth, in that (in agriculture) there are cows, there is your wife &c.' There are frequent references in Vedic Literature to fields, ploughshares and tilling the soil (vide Rg. X. 101. 3 = Tai. S. IV. 2. 5. 5, Vāj. S. XII. 67, Rg. I. 110. 5, I. 176. 2, X. 117. 7). Baudhāyana²⁷³ says (I. 5. 101) 'The study of the Veda tends to the destruction of agriculture and (devotion to) agriculture tends to the loss (of the study) of the Veda. One who has the capacity (to look after both) may resort to both, but he who is unable (to look after both) should give up agriculture'. Baudhāyana further says (II. 2. 82-83) 'a brāhmaṇa should engage in agriculture before his morning meal and he should only coax again and again his oxen whose noses have not been pierced and whose testicles are not removed and without prodding them with a pointed awl'. The Vas. Dh. S. (II. 32-34) has a similar sūtra, adds that in summer he shall water his beasts (in the morning) and quotes Vāj. S. XII. 71. Manu (X. 83-84) says 'a brāhmaṇa or a kṣatriya compelled to follow the avocations of a vaiśya (owing to difficulty of maintenance otherwise) should by all means avoid agriculture which is full of injury to sentient beings and dependent on others (labourers, oxen &c.). Some regard agriculture as a good mode of livelihood but it is condemned by the good, (as) wood having an iron tip (i. e. the plough) strikes the earth and (the insects and germs) imbedded in the earth.' Manu IV. 5 designated agriculture by the word 'pramṛta' (pre-eminent in loss of life). Hārta quoted²⁷⁴ in Gr. R. p. 429 declares 'the ploughshare (i. e. agriculture) carries with it destruction of life, therefore it is not for brāhmaṇas; but if he were to follow it (agriculture) in distress he should pursue it only till his object (of tiding over

272. अक्षैर्मा दीव्यः कृषिमित्कृषस्व वित्ते रमस्व बहु मन्यमानः । तत्र गावः कितव तत्र जाया तन्मे विचष्टे सवितायमर्यः ॥ ऋ. X. 34. 13.

273. वेदः कृषिविनाशाय कृषिवैद्विनाशिनी । शक्तिमाहुभयं कुर्यादशकस्तु कृषिं त्यजेत् । बौ. ध. सू. I. 5. 101; प्राक् प्रातराशात्कर्षी स्यात् । अस्त्यतनासिकाभ्यां समुष्काभ्यामनुवृत्तारया सुदुर्दुर्दुर्भ्युच्छन्दयत् । बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 82-83.

274. सहस्रं लाङ्गलं तद्ब्राह्मणे न विद्यते । आपद्याचरित्वाद्यदि कुर्याद्यथार्थम् । हारीत in गृह. र. p. 429.

distress) is accomplished'. Parāśara²⁷⁵ (II. 2-4, 7, 14) allows a brāhmaṇa to engage in agriculture, but lays down certain restrictions. 'The proper number of oxen to be yoked to the plough is eight, six being middling, four are yoked only by the cruel and two by those who sacrifice the lives of their oxen; he should not yoke an ox that is hungry, thirsty or tired, he should make the oxen work only for half the day and then bathe them in water, he should offer the five mahāyajñas and other sacrifices with corn raised by himself engaging in agriculture, the sin of ploughing the earth for a day with an iron-tipped ploughshare is equal to that incurred by a fisherman fishing for a year; he should give $\frac{1}{8}$ of the corn to the king, offer $\frac{1}{32}$ to gods and $\frac{1}{32}$ to brāhmaṇas and then he may not be smeared with sin'. Hārīta quoted by Aparārka (p. 937) has a long prose passage on the treatment to be given to oxen by brāhmaṇas and also Vṛddha-Gautama (Jiv. part 2 p. 571). Vṛddha-Hārīta²⁷⁶ (VII. 179 and 182) says that agriculture is common to all varṇas and agriculture, rearing cattle and service are not forbidden to any. The above discussion shows how agriculture was viewed at different times and by different writers from different points of view.

Sale and barter—We have seen above that a brāhmaṇa is allowed to maintain himself by trade in distress or difficulties (*āpad*). But there were very great restrictions as to what things could be sold by a brāhmaṇa. According to Gaut. (VII. 8-14) a brāhmaṇa should not engage in the sale of fragrant things (like sandal-wood), fluids (like oils, ghee &c.), cooked food, sesame, hemp (and hempen articles like bags), kṣāuma (linen), deer-skin, dyed and cleanly washed clothes, milk and its products (like curds &c.), roots, flowers, fruits, herbs (used as drugs), honey, meat, grass, water, deleterious drugs (like opium, poison), animals (for being killed), men (as slaves), barren cows, heifers and cows liable to abortion. He adds (Gautama VII. 15) that according to some a brāhmaṇa could not sell land, rice, yava, goats and sheep, horses, bulls, freshly delivered cows and

275. षट्कर्मनिरतो विप्रः कृषिकर्माणि कारयेत् । हलमष्टगवं धर्म्यं षड्गवं मध्यमं स्तुतम् । चतुर्गवं दृशंसानां द्विगवं वृषयातिनाम् ॥ पराशर II. 2; ब्राह्मणस्तु कृषिं कृत्वा महादोषमवाप्नुयात् । राज्ञे दत्त्वा तु षड्भागं देवानां चैकविंशकम् । विप्राणां त्रिंशकं भागं कृषि-कर्ता न लिप्यते ॥ पराशर II. 12-13. This last is ascribed to बृहस्पति by अपरार्क p. 936, गृह. र. p. 431. The verse अष्टागवं धर्म्यहलं occurs in Atri 222-223, Apastamba (in verse) I. 22-23, Hārīta in Gr. R. p. 431.

276. कृषिस्तु सर्ववर्णानां सामान्यो धर्म उच्यते । कृषिर्धृतिः पाशुपाल्यं सर्वेषां निषिध्यते । बृहदारण्यक VII. 179, 182.

oxen that are yoked to carts. These restrictions did not apply to a kṣatriya engaging in trade. Āp. Dh. S. I. 7. 20. 12-13²⁷⁷ has a similar list but adds among forbidden articles of sale 'weapons, sticky things (śleṣma, like lac), young stalks (tokma), fermented liquids (kiṇva), the expectation of merit (sukṛtāśā) and says that among corns sesame and rice are on no account to be sold. Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 77-78 condemns the sale of sesame and rice by saying that he who sells them sells respectively his *pitṛs* (dead ancestors) and his *prānas*. This arose probably from the close connection of sesame with *śrāddha* and *tarpaṇa*. Vas. Dh. S. (II. 24-29) gives a similar list and adds a prohibition against the sale of stones, salt, silk, iron, tin, lead, all wild animals, all tame animals with uncloven hoofs and those that have a mane, birds and animals having fangs. It quotes a verse at II. 27 (which is the same as Manu X. 92) 'a brāhmaṇa immediately becomes a sinner by the sale of meat, lac and salt and he becomes a śūdra by selling milk for three days'. About sesame, Baud. Dh. S.²⁷⁸ (II. 1. 76), Manu (X. 91) and Vas. Dh. S. (II. 30) present the same verse 'If a man deals with sesame in any way other than eating them or using them for bathing (i. e. applying sesamum oil to the body before a bath) and making a gift of them, becomes a worm and sinks together with his *pitṛs* in the ordure of a dog'. But it appears that Vasiṣṭha²⁷⁹ (II. 31), Manu (X. 90) allow the sale of sesame if a man engages in agriculture and himself produces them (but sale must be only for purposes of religious duties, according to Manu). Yāj. (III. 39) and Nārada (ṛnādāna 66) say that sesame may be bartered for an equal measure of other corn to raise means for religious purposes (and for medicine also according to Nārada). Manu (X. 86-89), Yāj. (III. 36-38), Nārada (ṛnādāna 61-63) give long lists of articles that Brāhmaṇas were forbidden to sell and that include a few more than those specified above. For example, Manu forbids the sale of bee's wax, kuśa, indigo, while Yāj. adds soma, mud, blankets made of goat wool, hair (of *camarī* deer) and oilcakes (*piṇyāka*) to things forbidden to

277. आपदि व्यवहरेत् पण्यानामपण्यानि व्युदस्यन् । मनुष्यान् रसान्तरागान् गन्धानां चर्म गवो वशां श्लेष्मोदके तोक्मकिण्वे पिप्पलीमरीचे धान्यं मांसमायुधं सुकृतशां च । तिल-तण्डुलास्त्वेव धान्यस्य विशेषेण न विक्रीणीयात् । आप. ध. सू. I. 7. 20. 11-13.

278. भोजनाभ्यञ्जनादानाद् व्युदस्यत्कुरुते तिलैः । कुमिश्रतः श्वविट्पायां पितृभिः सह मज्जति ॥ मनु X. 91 ; यम quoted in स्मृतिच. I. 180 has a similar verse.

279. कामं वा स्वयं कृष्योत्पाद्य तिलान् विक्रीणीरन् । वसिष्ठ II. 31.

be sold. Śāṅkha-Likhita,²⁸⁰ Udyoga-parva 38. 5, Śāntiparva 78. 4-6, Hārta (as quoted by Aparārka p. 1113) contain long lists of things the sale of which was forbidden to brāhmaṇas. Apart from these negative rules, there are some that are positive and prescribe what may be sold. For example, the Baud. Dh. S.²⁸¹ prescribes the sale of grass and wood in their natural state and quotes a verse 'Oh! Brāhmaṇa, these are the articles you may sell, viz., domestic animals that have only one row of teeth, minerals except salt and threads (i. e. cloth) that are not coloured with some dye.' Nārada²⁸² (ṛṇādāna 64-65) states 'a brāhmaṇa may sell dried wood and grass, except fragrant articles, *erakū* (a kind of grass), rattan, cotton, roots, kuśa grass; cereals that get split up of their own accord, *badara* and *inguda* among fruits, cords and threads of cotton provided they are not coloured'. Śāṅkha-Likhita also (as quoted by Aparārka p. 933) have the same rules as Nārada and further enjoin upon the brāhmaṇa not to higggle for the price but to have a fixed price.

Yāj. (III. 40) says that the sale of lac, salt and meat lead to a brāhmaṇa's fall (i. e. he loses the right to perform the duties of dvijātis) and the sale of milk, curds and liquor reduces him to the status of a low class (i. e. of a śūdra). Manu (XI. 62), Viṣṇu Dh. S. (37. 14) and Yāj. (III. 234) include the sale of forbidden articles among upapātakas and Yāj. (III. 265) prescribes cāndrāyana and other prāyaścittas for it. Hārta (quoted by Aparārka p. 1113 and Mit. on Yāj. III. 265) prescribes various prāyaścittas for the sale of various forbidden articles. Laghu-Śātātapa prescribes (v. 87) cāndrāyana for the sale of honey, meat, wine, soma, lac, salt.²⁸³ Nārada (ṛṇādāna 67) calls upon

280. न विक्रीणीयादविक्रियाणि । तिलतैलदधिक्षौद्रलवणलाक्षामद्यमांसकृतास्त्रस्त्री-
पुरुषहस्त्यश्ववृषभगन्धरसकृष्णाजिनसीमोदकनीलीविक्रियास्तथाः पतति ब्राह्मणः ॥ शङ्ख-
लिखित quoted by अपरार्क p. 1113 and स्मृतिच. I. 180; अविक्रीयं लवणं पक्वमर्कं
दधिक्षीरं मधु तैलं घृतं च । तिला मांसफलमूलानि शाकं रक्तं वासः सर्वगन्धा गुडाश्च ॥
उद्योगपर्व 38. 5.

281. तुणकाष्ठमविकृतं विक्रियम् । अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । पशवश्चैकतोदन्ता अश्मा च
लवणोद्घृतः । एतद् ब्राह्मणं ते पर्यं तन्तुश्चारजनीकृतः ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 1. 81-82; sale
of minerals would be opposed to Vasiṣṭha II. 24.

282. ब्राह्मणस्य तु विक्रीयं क्षुष्कं दारं तुणानि च । गन्धद्रव्यैरकावेत्रं तुलस्त्रुली-
कृताहते (?) । स्वयं शीर्णं च विदलं फलानां बद्धरेजुदे । रज्जुः कार्पासिकं सूत्रं तच्चेदविकृतं
भवेत् । नारद (ऋणादान 64-65); क्षुष्ककाष्ठवद्धरेजुद्विल्वरज्जुकार्पासिकसूत्रैरविकृतैर्द्रव्यमा-
हरेत् । शङ्खलिखित quoted by अपरार्क p. 934; सकृदेवोक्तं मूल्यमिच्छेत् । शङ्खलिखित
quoted in अपरार्क p. 934.

283. मधुमांससुरासोमं लाक्षां लवणमेव च । एतेषां विक्रयेणैव द्विजश्चान्द्रायणं चरेत् ॥
लघुशातातप 87.

the king to inflict a heavy fine upon a brāhmaṇa who engages in the sale of articles forbidden to be sold and strays from the path (proper for brāhmaṇas) in the absence of distress.

Āp. Dh. S. (I. 7. 20. 14-15)²⁸⁴ states the general rule that exchange or barter also of those articles that are forbidden to be sold cannot be resorted to, but adds that barter is allowed of foods with foods, of slaves with slaves, of fragrant things with other fragrant things, of one kind of learning with another. Gaut.²⁸⁵ (VII. 16-21) allows the exchange of *rasas* with *rasas*, of domestic animals with other domestic animals, of cooked food with an equal measure of uncooked food for immediate use, but forbids the barter of salt, cooked food and sesame with other articles. Manu (X. 94) allows the exchange of one *rasa* (liquid like molasses) with another (like ghee), of cooked food with uncooked food, of sesame with an equal quantity of other corn, but does not allow the barter of salt for any *rasa*. Vas. Dh. S. (II. 37-39) has rules similar to Manu and Āp.²⁸⁶

Manu (X. 116)²⁸⁷ enumerates ten means of maintaining oneself in *āpad* (distress) viz. learning, arts and crafts, work for wages, service (i. e. carrying out another's orders), rearing cattle, sale of commodities, agriculture, contentment, alms, money-lending. Out of these some cannot be followed by a brāhmaṇa or a kṣatriya when there is no distress (e. g. a brāhmaṇa cannot engage in service). Yāj. III. 42 enumerates seven of these and adds 'cart' (i. e. driving carts for hire), mountain (subsisting on the price of grass and fuel taken from hills), a country full of water, trees and shrubs, king (i. e. resorting to or begging from a king). Chāgaleya quoted in Gr. R. p. 449²⁸⁸

284. अविविहितश्रुतेषां मिथो विनिमयः । अन्नेन चाक्षस्य मनुष्याणां च मनुष्यै रसानां च रसैर्गन्धानां च गन्धैर्विद्याया च विद्यानाम् । आप. ध. सू. I. 7. 20. 14-15.

285. नियमस्तु । रसानां रसैः । पशूनां च । न लवणकुताक्षयोः । तिलानां च । समेनामेन तु पक्षस्य संप्रत्यर्थे । गौतम VII. 16-21.

286. रसा रसैर्महतो हीनतो वा विमातव्याः । न त्वेव लवणं रसैः । तिलतण्डुलपक्काजं विद्या मानुष्याश्च विहिताः परिवर्तकेन । वसिष्ठ II. 37-39.

287. विद्या शिल्पं भुतिः सेवा गोरक्ष्यं विपणिः कृषिः । धृतिर्भैक्ष्यं कुसीदं च दश जीव-नहेतवः ॥ मनु X. 116 ; कृषिः शिल्पं भुतिर्विद्या कुसीदं शकटं गिरिः । सेवान्द्रप्यो भैक्ष-मापन्नौ जीवनानि तु ॥ या. III. 42.

288. शकटं शाकिनी गावो जालमस्यन्दनं वनम् । अनूपं पर्वतो राजा दुर्भिक्षे नव वृत्तयः । छागेलयः । ग्रह. र. p. 449. The बृहदेवता VI. 138 has the first half and reads the 2nd half as समुद्रः पर्वतो राजा एवं जीवामहे वयम्. In some Mss. of the निरुक्त this verse occurs in VI. 5 where the readings are आस्यन्दनं वनम् । उदधिः पर्वतो राजा दुर्भिक्षे नव वृत्तयः ॥ आस्यन्दनं may be the same as स्यन्दनं (रथ).

speaks of nine means of livelihood in a season of drought, viz. cart, plot of vegetables, cows, fishing, asyandana (maintaining oneself by the slightest effort possible?), forest, a country full of water, trees and shrubs, a mountain, king. Nārada (ṛnādāna 50-55) says that three modes of acquiring wealth are common to all, viz. inheritance, a gift of friendliness or affection and what comes to a man with a wife (at the time of marriage); that each of the three varṇas has three special modes of acquiring wealth, viz., receiving gifts, fees as priest and fees for teaching in the case of brāhmanas; booty in war, taxes and fines in judicial trials in the case of kṣatriyas; agriculture, rearing cattle and sale of commodities in the case of vaiśyas. Nārada (ṛnādāna verses 44-47) divides wealth into śukla (white, pure), śabala (dark-white, mixed) and kṛṣṇa (dark) and each of these into seven varieties. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. chap. 58 also divides the wealth of householders into these three varieties and says that what is earned by the special modes prescribed for each varṇa, inherited wealth, gifts of affection and what comes with the wife—these are śukla (pure); what is obtained by following the special avocation of the varṇa immediately lower than one's own varṇa and what is acquired by giving bribes or by sale of forbidden articles or from one who is under one's obligations is śabala; what is obtained by following the avocations of a varṇa other than the immediately lower one and what is acquired by gambling, theft, violence or fraud is called kṛṣṇa. Baud. Dh. S. (III. 1. 5-6) speaks of ten kinds of vṛttis (means of livelihood) and III. 2 explains them at length. Manu (IV. 4-6) speaks of five ways of livelihood viz. rta (i. e. subsisting on grains left in the fields), amṛta (what comes without begging), mṛta (alms obtained by begging), pramṛta (agriculture), satyāmṛta (sale of commodities) and forbids śvavṛtti (service, lit. living like a dog). Manu (IV. 9) further says that some brāhmanas live by six means (i. e. adhyāpana, yājana, pratigraha, agriculture, rearing cattle and trade), some by three (viz. the first three), some by two (yājana and adhyāpana) and others again only by one (adhyāpana).

The avocations practised by brāhmanas in the pursuit of wealth were many and varied, so much so that from very ancient times the lists of brāhmanas not eligible for invitation at śrāddhas because they followed unworthy callings were very formidable. Atri (Ānan. ed.) verses 373-383 names ten kinds of brāhmanas and briefly defines them, viz. deva-brāhmaṇa (who

daily performs bath, samdhya, japa, homa, worship of gods and honouring of guests and vaiśvadeva), muni-br. (who is given up to staying in a forest, subsists on roots, fruits and vegetables and performs daily śrāddhas), dvija-br. (who studies the Vedānta, gives up all attachments and is engaged in reflecting over Sāṅkhya and Yoga), kṣatra-br. (who fights), vaiśya-br. (who engages in agriculture, rearing cattle and trade), śūdra-br. (who sells lac, salt, dyes like kusumbha, milk, ghee, honey, meat), niṣāda-br. (who is a thief and robber, a backbiter and always fond of fish and meat), paśu-br. (who knows nothing about *brahma* and is only proud of his wearing the sacred thread), mleccha-br. (who obstructs or destroys wells, tanks, gardens, without any qualm) and caṇḍālā-br. (who is a fool, devoid of prescribed rites, beyond the pale of all dharma and cruel). Atri (384) rather²⁸⁹ humorously adds 'those who are devoid of Vedic lore, study the śāstras (like grammar, logic &c.), those devoid of śāstric lore study purāṇas (and earn money by reciting them), those who are devoid even of purāṇa reading become agriculturists, those who are devoid even of that become *bhūgavatas* (pose as great devotees of Śiva or Viṣṇu i. e. become what is called in modern Marathi 'buvā').' Devala quoted²⁹⁰ by Aparārka (pp. 284-285) speaks of eight kinds of brāhmaṇas (of whom each succeeding one is superior to each preceding one) viz. mātra (one who is only born in a brāhmaṇa family but has not studied any part of the Veda nor performs the actions appropriate to brāhmaṇas), brāhmaṇa (who has studied a portion of the Veda), śrotriya (who has studied one vedic śākhā with the six āngas and performs the six duties of brāhmaṇas), anūcāna (who knows the meaning of the Veda and the vedāṅgas, is of pure heart and has kindled the sacred fires), bhrūṇa (who besides being anūcāna always performs yajñas and eats what is left after performing yajñas), ṛṣikalpa (who has gained all worldly and Vedic knowledge, and has his mind

289. वेदैर्विहीनाश्च पठन्ति शास्त्रं शास्त्रेण हीनाश्च पुराणपाठाः । पुराणहीनाः कृषिणो भवन्ति भ्रष्टास्ततो भागवता भवन्ति ॥ अत्रि 384.

290. These verses about the eight kinds of ब्राह्मणः are quoted in the दानरत्नाकर also (MS.). The वैखानससूत्र I. 1 also gives brief definitions of these eight kinds of ब्राह्मणः 'संस्कृतायां ब्राह्मण्यां ब्राह्मणाज्जात-मात्रः पुत्रमात्रः (पुत्रः मात्रः ?) । उपनीतः सावित्र्यश्चयनाद् ब्राह्मणः । वेदमधीत्य शारीरैरापाणिग्रहणात्संस्कृतः पाकयज्ञैरपि यजच श्रोत्रियः । स्वाध्यायपर अहिताग्निर्हविर्यज्ञैरप्यनु-चानः । सोमयज्ञैरपि भ्रूणः । संस्कारैरितैरुपेतो नियमयमाग्यासृषिकल्पः । साङ्गचतुर्वेदतपो-योगाद्विभिः । नारायणपरायणो निर्द्वन्द्वो मुनिरिति । संस्कारविशेषात्पूर्वार्त्पूर्वार्त्तरो वरीयानिति विज्ञायते ।'

under control), ṛṣi (one who is celibate, of austere life, of truthful speech and able to curse or favour), muni (to whom a clod of earth and gold are the same, who has ceased from all activity, is devoid of desires and anger &c.). Śātātapa²⁹¹ quoted by Aparārka (pp. 286-287) speaks of six classes of persons who, though born brāhmanas, are really not brāhmanas viz. one who has taken service with a king, one who engages in sale and purchase (of commodities), one who officiates for many yajamānas, one who is the officiating priest for the whole village, one who is in the service of a village or town, one who does not perform saṁdhyā adoration in the morning and evening at the proper time. The Anuśāsanaparva (33. 11 ff) shows that some brāhmanas were great rogues, others engaged in austerities, some resorted to agriculture and rearing cattle, others subsisted by begging, some were thieves and others were false, some were acrobats and dancers (but it yet recommends that brāhmanas must be honoured).

The smṛtis teach that brāhmanas doing certain things are to be treated as sūdras. For example, Baud.²⁹² Dh. S. (II. 4. 20) requires a religious king to employ brāhmanas who do not perform the morning and evening adoration (saṁdhyā) in doing work appropriate to sūdras. Vas.²⁹³ Dh. S. (III. 1-2) says that brāhmanas who are not śrotriyas (learned in the Veda), who do not teach the veda or who do not kindle the sacred fires become reduced to the status of sūdras and quotes a Mānava śloka (Manu II. 168) 'that a brāhmaṇa who without studying the Veda works hard to master something else is quickly reduced while still living to the status of a sūdra together with his family.' Manu (VIII. 102 = Baud. Dh. S. I.

291. अत्राह्णग्राह्यं च पदं प्रोक्ता ऋषिः शातातपोब्रवीत् । आद्यो राजाश्रयस्तेषां द्वितीयः क्रयविक्रयीः । तृतीयो बहुयाज्यः स्यात् चतुर्थो ग्रामयाजकः । पञ्चमस्तु भृतस्तेषां ग्रामस्य नगरस्य च । अनागतां तु यः पूर्वं सादित्यां चैव पञ्चिमां । नोपासीत द्विजः संध्यां स षष्ठोऽब्राह्मणः स्मृतः ॥ अपरार्क pp. 286-287 ; सायण in his भाष्य on ऐ. ब्रा. chap. III. khaṇḍa 5 quotes with variations these very verses (viz. चतुर्थोऽश्वेतयाजकः । पञ्चमो ग्रामयाजी च षष्ठो ब्रह्मचर्युः स्मृतः ॥).

292. सायं प्रातः सदा संध्यां ये विप्रा नो उपासते । कामं तान् धार्मिको राजा ह्यु-
र्कर्मस्तु योजयेत् ॥ बो. ध. सू. II. 4. 20 (this and the preceding verse are cited as प्रजापति's by some writers.)

293. अश्रोत्रिया अननुवाक्या अनग्रयो वा ह्युदसधर्माणो भवन्ति । मानवं चात्र श्लोक-
खदाहन्ति । योनधीय द्विजो वेदमस्यत्र कुरुते श्रमम् । स जीवन्नेव ह्युद्वत्त्वमाह्यु गच्छति
सान्वयः ॥ वसिष्ठ III. 1-2 ; this verse is also लब्धवाचलायन 22. 23 ; vide also
वसिष्ठ V. 10 and लब्धवाच 22. 21-22 ; गायत्रीरहितो विमः ह्युदादग्यशुचिर्भवेत् । पराक्षर
VIII. 24 ; but the very next verse is दुःशीलोपि द्विजः पूज्यो न ह्युदो विजितेन्द्रियः ॥

5. 95) asks the king to treat as sūdras brāhmaṇas who engage in rearing cattle, in the sale of commodities, who are artisans and actors, who are mere servants and money-lenders. Vide Manu X. 92 quoted above (p. 127). Parāśara (VIII. 24) says²⁹⁴ that a brāhmaṇa who does not repeat the Gāyatrī *mantra* is more impure than even a sūdra and that brāhmaṇas who do not offer oblations to sacred fires, who are bereft of saṁdhyā adoration and who do not study the veda are all sūdras and that therefore one should study at least a portion of the veda if he cannot study the whole. Manu (V. 4)²⁹⁵ sums up in one place the reasons why brāhmaṇas are seized by Death before the allotted span of human life 'on account of not studying the Vedas, on account of giving up the rules of conduct prescribed for them, through idleness and through the faults arising from (partaking forbidden) food, Death desires to kill brāhmaṇas.'

A few words must be said about begging. The smṛtis prescribe begging as specially appropriate to brahmacārins (vedic students) and ascetics (yatis), which will be dealt with at length later on. Begging was not allowed to others except under considerable restrictions. The king of Kekaya²⁹⁶ is made to boast in the Mahābhārata (Śānti 77. 22) that no one who is not a brahmacārin begs in his kingdom. Gifts of food were to be made daily while performing the five mahāyājñas (this will be treated under vaiśvadeva). Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 10. 1-4 recognizes that begging can properly be resorted to for the following reasons, viz. for the teacher, for (one's first) marriage, for a sacrifice, in anxiety to support one's parents, for warding off the non-observance of the duties of a worthy person; he enjoins that on these occasions there is a duty to give according to one's ability and according to the worth of the person begging and that if a man begs only for the gratification of his senses (and not for pressing wants) one should pay no heed to such²⁹⁷

294. अग्निकार्यात्परिभ्रष्टाः संध्योपासनवार्जिताः । वेदं चैवानधीयानाः सर्वे ते वृथलाः स्मृताः ॥ अध्येतव्योप्येकदेशो यदि सर्वं न शक्यते । पराशर XII. 32-33.

295. अनन्यासाच्च वेदानामाचारस्य च वर्जनात् । आलस्याद्वदोषाच्च मृत्युर्विगमजिघांसति ॥ मनु V. 4

296. नामह्यचारी भिक्षावान् भिक्षुर्वाऽब्रह्मचर्यवान् । ज्ञान्तिपर्व 77. 22.

297. भिक्षणे निमित्तमाचार्यो विवाहो यज्ञो मातापित्रोर्बुध्न्याऽर्हतश्च नियमविलोपः । तत्र शुणान् समीक्ष्य यथाशक्ति देयम् । इन्द्रियप्रीत्यर्थस्य तु भिक्षणमनिमित्तम् । तस्माच्च तद्वादिष्येत । आप. ध. II. 5. 10. 1-4; compare Manu IV. 251, XI. 1-2, Yaj. I. 216, Gaut. V. 19-20. ज्ञान्तिपर्व 165. 1-2. are 'हृतायौ यक्ष्यमाणश्च सर्ववेदान्तगश्च यः । आचार्यपितृकार्यार्थं स्वाध्यायार्थमथापि च । एते वै साधवो हृष्टा ब्राह्मणा धर्मभिक्षवः ॥.'

begging. Vas. Dh. S. XII. 2-3 says that 'a man oppressed by hunger may beg for a little viz. a cultivated or uncultivated plot, a cow, a sheep or ewe, and at last gold, corn or cooked food; but a *snātaka* should not faint through hunger; this is the instruction'. Vide Manu X. 114 for practically the same words and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 3. 79-80. Baud Dh. S. II. 1. 64 includes begging by one who has finished his course of studenthood among actions that make a man impure (*aśucikara*). Manu XI. 16-17 says that when a person has had no food for three days he may take away (by theft even) from one who is lower than himself in class as much corn as will be enough for one day, either from the threshing floor or from the field or from his house or from whatever place he can get it, but he should announce his action when the owner asks. Gaut. (18. 28-30) and Yāj. III. 43 are to the same effect. Āṅgiras²⁹⁸ quoted in Gr. R. (p. 450) allows begging to the diseased, the indigent, to one who is torn away from his family and who is on a journey. Śāṅkha-Likhita²⁹⁹ as quoted in Gr. R. (p. 457) say 'when a man begs he should state the purpose (such as marriage, completion of sacrifice) of his begging; he should not beg of a woman or of those who are minors or unable to conduct their affairs, nor when the donor is not in a proper place or at a proper time. He should apply the alms to the purpose for which he begged. He should give that portion of the alms which remains unused to priests or any other excellent person'. Vas. Dh. S. (III. 4) and Parāśara³⁰⁰ (I. 60) call upon the king to fine that village where persons of the higher classes wander about begging though they are not observers of vows (like *brahmacārins*) and are not studying the Veda. The foregoing will show that indiscriminate begging was never allowed or encouraged by the *smṛtis* even for *brāhmanas*, much less for others.

It has been seen above how even during the Vedic period *brāhmanas* had come to be highly eulogised as if they were gods and held superior merely on account of birth. The

298. व्याधितस्य दरिद्रस्य कुटुम्बात्प्रच्युतस्य च । अध्वानं प्रतिपन्नस्य भिक्षाचर्या विधीयते । अङ्गिरस् in गृह. र. p. 450.

299. भिक्षमाणो वा निमित्तान्तरं ब्रूयात् । न स्त्रीं नाप्राप्तव्यवहारान् । अपर्याप्त-संनिधानान् । अद्वादिभ्यान् भिक्षेत । यदर्थं भिक्षेत तमेवार्थं कुर्यात् । शेषमृत्विग्न्यो निवेदयेत् । यो वान्यः साधुतमस्तस्मै दद्यात् । ऋद्धलिखित in गृह. र. p. 457.

300. अवता ह्यनधीयाना यत्र भैक्षचरा दिजाः । तं ग्रामं दण्डयेद्वाजा चोरभक्तयद्वी हि सा ॥ वसिष्ठ III. 4 and पराशर I. 60.

Tai. Br. III. 7. 3 says 'One should sacrifice in the right hand of a brāhmaṇa; the brāhmaṇa indeed is Agni-*vaiśvānara*'. Vide Śāntiparva 343. 13-14, Manu IV. 117, Likhita 31, Vas. Dh. S. 30. 2-5. The same ideas of the sacredness and the superiority of brāhmaṇas were carried forward and further emphasized by the dharma-śāstra works. Most exaggerated and hyperbolical descriptions of the greatness of brāhmaṇas are sown broadcast over all the smṛtis and the purāṇas. It is not possible to set out even a small fraction of them. But a few passages may usefully be cited here by way of samples. The Viṣṇu Dh. S.³⁰¹ (19. 20-22) says 'the gods are invisible deities, but brāhmaṇas are visible deities; the worlds are supported by brāhmaṇas; the gods stay in heaven by the favour of brāhmaṇas; words spoken by brāhmaṇas never come to be untrue'. Manu (I. 100) declares 'whatever³⁰² wealth exists on this earth—all that belongs to the brāhmaṇa; the brāhmaṇa deserves everything on account of his superiority due to his descent (from the mouth of the Creator)'. Manu IX. 313-321 contain a hyperbolical eulogy of the power of brāhmaṇas, two of which may be set out 'who would prosper if he oppresses brāhmaṇas that, when angered, might create other worlds and other guardians of the worlds and that might deprive the deities of their position as deities' (315); 'a brāhmaṇa, whether learned or not, is a great deity' (verse 317). Manu XI. 84 is 'a brāhmaṇa by the very fact of his birth is an object of honour even to the deities.' Parāśara (VI. 52-53) holds 'whatever defects there may be in *vrātas*, in austerities, or in sacrificial rites, they all vanish when brāhmaṇas support them. Whatever words are spoken by brāhmaṇas are spoken by the gods; brāhmaṇas have all the gods in them and therefore their words do not fail.'³⁰³ The Mahābhārata indulges in very

301. देवाः परोक्षदेवाः प्रत्यक्षदेवा ब्राह्मणाः । ब्राह्मणैर्लौका धार्यन्ते । ब्राह्मणानां प्रसादेन दिवि तिष्ठन्ति देवताः । ब्राह्मणमिहितं चाक्यं न मिथ्या जायते क्वचित् ॥ विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 19. 20-22. With the first sūtra note 85 above may be compared.

302. This is a mere *arthavāda*. It means 'it is as if his', for Manu himself (in VIII. 338) prescribes for brāhmaṇas who knowing everything are guilty of theft 64 or 100 or 128 times as much fine, as a sūdra guilty of the same theft has to pay if he unknowingly commits it, while the latter pays eight times as much if he knowingly commits it.

303. ब्रतच्छिद्रं तपश्छिद्रं यच्छिद्रं यज्ञकर्मणि । सर्वं भवति निश्छिद्रं ब्राह्मणैरुपपादितम् ॥ ब्राह्मणा यानि भाषन्ते भाषन्ते तानि देवताः । सर्वदेवमया विषा न तद्वचनमन्यथा । पराशर VI. 52-53. शातातप (I. 30-31) has the same two verses with slight variations.

frequent eulogies of brāhmaṇas. Ādiparva (28. 3-4) says³⁰⁴ 'a brāhmaṇa, when provoked, becomes fire, the sun, poison, and weapon; a brāhmaṇa is declared to be the *guru* of all beings.' Vanaparva³⁰⁵ (303. 16) says 'a brāhmaṇa is the highest light, he is the highest *tapas*; the sun shines in heaven on account of the salutations made by the brāhmaṇas'. This and similar dicta closely follow what was expressed in the Vedic period long before e. g. 'the sun would not rise if the brāhmaṇa did not make sacrifice' (Śatapatha II. 3. 1. 5); the refrain of Rg. II. 15. 2-9 is that Indra performed his great and heroic works under the intoxication of the soma (offered by the priests in sacrifices). Rg. IV. 50. 7-9 say that a king and others for whom the purohita offers prayers win battles, secure booty and help from gods. Anuśāsana-parva³⁰⁶ (33. 17) says 'they may make a non-deity into a deity and a deity into a non-deity; that man may become a king whom they desire to be so, and he who is not desired by them may be defeated.' Śānti (56. 22) declares 'In this world brāhmaṇa is the highest being'.

It should not be supposed that the brāhmaṇas inserted these eulogies solely for the purpose of increasing their importance and tightening their hold on the other classes. If the other classes had not themselves more or less shared these ideas, no amount of iteration on the part of brāhmaṇas would have given them the influence which they as a matter of fact wielded. Their influence was a growth of centuries and they themselves were as much parts of the huge edifice of the caste system as the other varṇas. Besides the brāhmaṇas had no military force behind them. They could only succeed in influencing the other varṇas by persuasion and their own worth. The brāhmaṇas were the creators and custodians of the vast literature that had grown up, they were the guardians of the culture of ages, they were expected to shoulder the burdens of teaching and preserving the vast literature on such gifts as were voluntarily made. Though many among them did not

304. अग्निर्को विषं शस्त्रं विप्रो भवति कोपितः । युरहिं सर्वभूतानां ब्राह्मणः परिकीर्तितः ॥
आदिपर्व 28. 3-4; vide आदि- 81. 23 and 25 and मत्स्यपुराण 30. 23 and 25 for a similar idea.

305. ब्राह्मणो हि परं तेजो ब्राह्मणो हि परं तपः । ब्राह्मणानां नमस्कारैः सूर्यो दिवि विराजते ॥ वनपर्व 303. 16.

306. अद्वैतं दैवतं कुर्तुर्दैवतं चाप्यदैवतम् । यमिच्छेयुः स राजा स्याद्यो नेष्टः स परामवेत् ॥ अनुशासनपर्व 33. 17 and 152. 16.

live up to the high ideals set up for their order, there must have been not a few who made as near an approach to the fulfilment of the ideal as possible. It was the greatness of these latter that led to the glorification of the whole order to which they belonged. Learning and *tapas* are more or less elusive and impalpable, while birth from brāhmaṇa parents was quite an apparent and palpable thing. Therefore that was seized upon by some writers as the principal reason for the respect to be given to brāhmaṇas. For centuries human societies have everywhere acquiesced in the government and control exercised by small coteries of the elite, generally the elite of birth, who have guided the destinies of their societies on traditional lines of religious and social order. It must be remembered that the *smṛti* works also extol the office of the king (which was generally hereditary and is so even now) to the skies. Manu (VII. 4-11) propounds³⁰⁷ the theory that the king has in him the parts of such gods as Indra and that a king is a great deity in human form. The theory of varṇas as conceived by Manu and other *smṛtikāras* was based upon the idea of the division of labour, on the idea of balancing the rival claims of various sections of the community; it laid greatest emphasis upon the duties of the varṇas rather than upon their rights and privileges. It raised the brāhmaṇa to the highest pinnacle of reverence, but at the same time it placed before him the ideal of not hankering after temporal power, of leading a life of comparative poverty and of making his knowledge available to the other classes for a scanty and precarious return. It made the military caste feel that they were not all-in-all, but had to look up to some other class as superior to themselves. European writers severely condemn brāhmaṇas for their greed, selfishness and constant praises of gifts to themselves. But they forget to take account of the circumstances under which the brāhmaṇas were forced to sing the praises of gifts to them. The ideal before brāhmaṇas was to lead a life of comparative poverty; they were forbidden to follow many worldly pursuits and depended on the generosity of their patrons. They did not live in monasteries as Buddhist and Christian monks did nor were they entitled to fixed and fat salaries like the bishops in some Christian countries. They had further to bring up their own families and pupils and had themselves also to make gifts to others. In modern capitalist societies those who have brains

307. महती देवता होष नररूपेण विद्यति ॥ मनु VII. 8.

and knowledge tend to become financiers and capitalists, all wealth is centred in their hands, they reduce most other men to mere wage-earners who are often hardly better than helots. While finding fault with the brāhmaṇa writers of over two thousand years ago for the eulogies they bestowed upon themselves, one should not forget that even in the 20th century when the pursuit of scientific studies is professed to have reached its zenith, we hear ecstatic and arrogant eulogies of the white man's burden, of the great and glorious achievements of the Nordic race and the greater and more glorious future it is destined to attain (vide the very first sentence in Spengler's 'The Decline of the West', English translation by C. F. Atkinson). The brāhmaṇas never arrogated to themselves the authority to depose kings and to hand over vast territories for ever to whomsoever they liked, as Pope Alexander VI by his Bull of 1493 made over the New World to Isabella of Castille and Ferdinand of Aragon (vide Dean Inge's 'Christian Ethics' 1930 p. 160 where this astounding Bull is set out).

It has been seen already that brāhmaṇas had the special privileges of teaching, officiating as priests and accepting gifts made as a religious duty. It is desirable that a comprehensive list of all the privileges claimed by brāhmaṇas (though not always conceded as the sequel will show) should be set out once for all.

(1) The brāhmaṇa was to be *guru* (object of reverence)³⁰⁸ to all varṇas by the mere fact of birth. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 1. 5) says so. Vas. Dh. S. (IV. 1) says 'the system of four varṇas is distinguished by its origin and by the special features of the sacraments (each of them undergoes)' and quotes Rg. X. 90. 12 in support. Manu (I. 31 and 94) says that the Creator produced the four varṇas respectively from his mouth, arms, thighs and feet, that (I. 93) the brāhmaṇa is by right the master of this whole world on account of his birth from the best limb (i. e. the mouth) of the Creator, on account of his priority (in birth to the kṣatriya and others) and on account of possessing Vedic lore. Manu (X. 3) uses almost the same words as Vasiṣṭha 'the brāhmaṇa is the master of the varṇas on account of the peculiar excellence

308. चत्वारो वर्णा ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियवैश्यशूद्राः । तेषां पूर्वः पूर्वो जन्मतः श्रेयान् । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 1. 5; प्रकृतिविशिष्टं चातुर्वर्ण्यं संस्कारविशेषाच्च । ब्राह्मणोऽस्य मुखमासीद्ब्राह्मणं राजस्यः कृतः इत्यपि निगमो भवति । वसिष्ठ IV. 1-2; जातीनां ब्राह्मणः श्रेष्ठः । भीष्म 121. 35.

(of his caste), on account of his superiority of origin (from the mouth of the Creator), on account of his submitting himself to discipline (or holding up Vedic lore) and on account of the eminence of the sacraments (saṁskāras) in his case'. Bhīṣma-parva (121. 35) says that the brāhmaṇa is superior among all castes. This sense of superiority was carried so far that Āpa-stamba³⁰⁹ (I. 4. 14. 23), Manu (II. 135) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. (32. 17) say that a brāhmaṇa only ten years old was to be honoured as a father by a kṣatriya 100 years old.

(2) The brāhmaṇa was to expound the duties of all other classes, to indicate to them proper conduct and their means of livelihood and they were to abide by his directions and the king was to rule in accordance with such directions (Vas. Dh. S. I. 39-41, Manu VII. 37, X. 2). This is supported by the words of the Kāthakasaṁhitā³¹⁰ (IX. 16) and the Tai. Br. that the brāhmaṇa is indeed the supervisor over the people. The Ait. Br. (37. 5) declares that where the might of kṣatriyas is under the control (or direction) of brāhmaṇas that kingdom becomes prosperous, that kingdom is full of heroes³¹¹ &c. This idea is somewhat similar to the teaching of Plato who held that philosophers that had undergone a special training were to rule and were to be politicians, that the government of the best (aristocracy) was the ideal system. The problem is how to find out the best. Ancient India solved it by leaving the decision of knotty points to the learned brāhmaṇas and the execution of the decisions arrived at by them to the king and the kṣatriyas.

(3) 'The king was the ruler of all, except brāhmaṇas'-Gautama³¹² XI. 1. The Mīt. on Yāj. II. 4 explains that these words were only laudatory of the greatness of brāhmaṇas and were not to be taken literally and that the king could punish brāhmaṇas in appropriate cases. These words of Gautama are a mere echo of certain passages like those in the Vāj. S. (IX. 40) and the Śat.³¹³ Br. (V. 4. 2. 3 and IX. 4. 3. 16), where it is said

309. दशवर्षश्च ब्राह्मणः शतवर्षश्च क्षत्रियः । पितापुत्रौ स्म तौ विद्धि तयोस्तु ब्राह्मणः पिता । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 14. 23.

310. ब्राह्मणो वै प्रजानामुपद्रष्टा ॥ तै. ब्रा. II, 2. 1 and काठकसंहिता IX. 16.

311. तद्यत्र वै ब्रह्मणः क्षत्रं वक्षतेति तद्वाङ्मं समुद्धं तद्वीरवदाहास्मिन्वीरो जायते । ऐ. ब्रा. 37. 5.

312. राजा सर्वस्येष्टे ब्राह्मणवर्जम् । गौ. XI. 1; न च राजा सर्वस्येष्टे ब्राह्मणवर्जमिति गौतमवचनात् ब्राह्मणो दुण्ड्य इति मन्त्रव्यम् । तस्य प्रशंसार्थत्वात् । मिता० on या. II. 4.

313. सोमोऽस्माकं ब्राह्मणानां राजा । शतपथ V. 4. 2. 3; तस्माद् ब्राह्मणोऽनाथः सोमराजा हि भवति । शतपथ IX. 4. 3. 16.

'Soma is the king of us brāhmaṇas'. The idea was that brāhmaṇas had to prepare soma and offer it in sacrifices to the gods i.e. they held all wealth for Soma and owed all allegiance to Soma, while other people owed allegiance only to the king. The brāhmaṇas alone were to eat the sacrificial food and drink Soma (and kṣatriyas were to drink only a substitute for Soma). Vide Ait. Br. (chap. 35 khaṇḍa 4). In the Mahābhārata, however, many kings are described as *Somapas*. So the practice of not allowing the kṣatriyas to drink soma was not universally accepted. Further it was probably not a privilege at all, but only indicates that Soma sacrifices had been mostly neglected by all except brāhmaṇas.

(4) 'The king should exonerate (the brāhmaṇa) in the six matters, viz. (a brāhmaṇa) should not be beaten (whipped), he should not have fetters put on him, he should not be mulcted in fines of money, he should not be driven out (of the village or country), he should not be censured, he should not be abandoned'—Gaut. VIII.²¹⁴ 12-13. The Mit. on Yāj. II. 4 explains that these words are not applicable to every brāhmaṇa, but only to deeply learned brāhmaṇas described in the preceding sūtras (Gaut. VIII. 4-11). Haradatta adds that even a learned brāhmaṇa is treated in this way only if he commits an offence without pre-meditation but only through ignorance or oversight. As to corporal punishment for brāhmaṇa offenders, the matter stands thus. Gaut XII. 43 says that there is no corporal punishment for a brāhmaṇa (even when he being a thief comes to the king confessing his guilt and asking the king to beat him with a heavy club on the head). Vide Manu XI. 99-100 also. Baud. Dh. S. (I. 10. 18-19) first lays down that a brāhmaṇa is to undergo no beating for any offence but allows for a brāhmaṇa guilty of the mortal sins (of brāhmaṇa-murder, incest, drinking liquor, theft of gold) the punishment of branding on the forehead with red-hot iron and banishment from the country. Manu IX. 237 (= Matsyapurāṇa 227. 163-164), Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 4-7 prescribe the

314. यत्तु बह्विभिः परिहार्यो राज्ञाऽवध्यश्चावन्ध्यश्चादृण्यश्चाद्विष्कार्यश्चापस्त्रिवाद्यश्चा-
परिहार्यश्चेति (गौ. 8. 12-13) तदपि स एष बहुश्रुतो भवति... विनीत इति (गौतम 8. 4-11)
मतिपादितबहुश्रुतविषयं न ब्राह्मणमात्रविषयम् ॥ सिता० on या. II. 4 ; न शारीरो
ब्राह्मणदण्डः । गौतम 12. 43 ; अवध्यो वै ब्राह्मणः सर्वापराधेषु । ब्राह्मणस्य ब्रह्महत्या-
श्रुततत्पणमनसुवर्णस्तेयसुरापानेषु कुसिन्धु-भगसुगालसुराध्वजास्तत्तेनायसा ललाटेऽङ्कयित्वा
विषयान्निर्धनम् । बौ. ध. सू. I. 10. 18-19 ; the verse in the सूच्छकटिक (IX)
'अयं हि पातकी विभो न वध्यो मयुरब्रवीत् । राज्ञादस्मात्तु निर्वास्यो विभोऽक्षतैः सह ॥'
pointedly refers to मनु VIII. 280.

various figures that were to be branded on the forehead of a brāhmaṇa in the case of various offences. Manu (VIII. 379-380) prescribes shaving of the head for brāhmaṇa offenders where others would have had to suffer the extreme penalty of death and adds that a brāhmaṇa was not to be sentenced to death whatever offence he might have committed and that he is to be banished from the country taking with him all his possessions. Even on this the Mit. (on Yāj. II. 81) observes that it applies only when it is the brāhmaṇa's first offence (i. e. he may be fined for repeating an offence). Yāj. (II. 270), Nārada (sāhasa, verse 10) and Śaṅkha³¹⁵ prescribe branding and banishment as punishment for brāhmaṇas (particularly in the case of theft). The brāhmaṇa was never above being fined. Manu (VIII. 123) prescribes fine and banishment for a perjured brāhmaṇa witness, while Manu VIII. 378 prescribes heavy fines for a brāhmaṇa guilty of rape or adultery. The Mit. on³¹⁶ Yāj. II. 302 quotes a verse of Manu (not found in the extant Manusmṛiti) that in the case of the brāhmaṇa corporal punishment takes the form of complete shaving of the head, he is liable to banishment from the town, he may be branded on the forehead and he may be made to ride through the town on the back of an ass (looked upon at all times as the highest form of indignity). Kauṭ. also³¹⁷ (IV. 8) forbids corporal punishment for brāhmaṇas in all offences but prescribes branding on the forehead in the same way as Manu (IX. 237) and also banishment and labour on mines. But Kauṭ. makes an exception, viz. he allows a brāhmaṇa to be drowned in water if he is guilty of high treason, or of forcible entry in the king's harem or of inciting the enemies of the king &c. Kātyāyana³¹⁸ (quoted by Viśvarūpa on Yāj. II. 281) prescribes death sentence even for a brāhmaṇa when the latter is guilty of the destruction of a foetus, of theft, of

315. त्रयाणां वर्णानां धनापहारवधवन्धकृत्या विवातनाङ्गकरणं ब्राह्मणस्य । शङ्ख
quoted by the Mitā. on Yāj. II. 270.

316. ब्राह्मणस्य पुनः 'न शरीरो ब्राह्मणे दण्डः' इति निषेधाद्वधस्थाने शिरोमुण्डनादिकं
कर्तव्यम् । ब्राह्मणस्य वधो मौण्ड्यं पुराजिर्वसनाङ्गने । ललाटे चाभिज्ञस्ताङ्कः प्रयाणं गर्दभेन
तु ॥' इति मनुस्मरणात् । मिता० on Yāj. II. 302; the latter half is नारद (साहस 10),
the first half being शिरसो मुण्डनं दण्डस्तस्य निर्वसनं पुरात् ।

317. सर्वापराधेष्वपीदानीं ब्राह्मणः । तस्याभिज्ञस्ताङ्को ललाटे स्याद्व्यवहारपतनाय ।
स्तेये च । सुरापाने मद्यध्वजः । ब्राह्मणं पापकर्मणमुद्धुष्याङ्ककृतव्रणम् । कुर्याज्जिविषयं
राजा वासयेदाकरेषु वा ॥ कौटिल्य'स अर्थशास्त्र IV. 8

318. तथा च कात्यायनः । गर्भस्य पातने स्तेनो ब्राह्मण्यां शस्त्रपातने । अदुष्टां योषितं
हत्वा हन्तव्यो ब्राह्मणोऽपि हि ॥ कात्या. quoted by विश्वरूप on Yāj. II. 281.

striking a brāhmaṇa woman with a weapon and of killing an innocent woman. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 257 thinks it possible that kings sentenced brāhmaṇas to death in spite of the prohibition of corporal punishment and we have a classical illustration in the death sentence passed on the brāhmaṇa Cārudatta by king Pālaka in the Mṛcchakatika (IX). The foregoing discussion shows that the only special privilege claimed for the brāhmaṇa in the law courts of the land was freedom from death sentence or other corporal punishment like whipping, though rarely he was liable to be sentenced to death also. He was subject to the indignities of branding and being paraded on the back of an ass, to fines and banishment. These claims were very moderate as compared with the absurd lengths to which the doctrine of 'benefit of clergy' was carried in England and other western countries.³¹⁹ The clergyman in England was not by birth, he had to be ordained. Yet clergymen claimed that an ordained clerk, a monk or nun charged with serious offences called felonies could be tried only by an ecclesiastical court and this was conceded by the ordinary courts; this privilege was gradually extended to persons not ordained viz. to doorkeepers, readers, exorcists (all of whom merely assisted the clergy) and finally to all who could read or pretended to read a few words from the Bible. Holdsworth, Pollock and Maitland admit that the procedure in the ecclesiastical courts was little better than a farce (P and M vol. I. p. 426, Holdsworth vol. III p. 296). The ecclesiastic courts never pronounced a judgment of blood, the bishop only deprived the offending clerk of orders, and relegated him to a monastery, or kept him in prison for life or a shorter period and very rarely whipping and branding were ordered. Even in the first quarter of the 20th century, European British subjects and Europeans and Americans in general could claim in British India some startling privileges when charged with criminal offences which even the brāhmaṇas of over two thousand years ago did not claim. For example, under Sec. 443 of the Criminal Procedure Code of India (as it existed before 1923) they could not be tried by any Indian Magistrate (however senior and experienced) and that in serious cases like murder, even a Sessions Judge who was himself an European British

319. Vide Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law' (1895) vol. I. pp. 424-440 and Holdsworth's History of English Law 4th Ed. vol. I. pp. 615-616, vol. III. pp. 294-302 for the history of the doctrine.

subject could not sentence an European British subject to more than one year's imprisonment (Section 449). Any European or American could claim to be tried by a mixed jury of which not less than one half had to be Europeans or Americans, while an Indian offender could not claim the privilege in his own country that not less than one half of the jury that tried him must be Indians. In England even now a peer indicted for treason or felony must be tried by his peers and not by the tribunals that try ordinary men (vide Halsbury's Laws of England, 2nd Ed. vol. 25 p. 46). The brāhmaṇas had to submit to trial in the ordinary courts and the smṛtis do not generally provide for trial of brāhmaṇas in special ecclesiastical courts of their own class. The only approach to this western doctrine of benefit of clergy is to be found in the Āp. Dh. S.,³²⁰ where it is said that the teacher and others who have authority over a brāhmaṇa guilty of transgressions should prescribe prāyaścittas for him: if he does not abide by their orders, he should be taken to the king who should hand him over to his own *purohita*; the latter was to prescribe prāyaścittas (penances for atonement) for brāhmaṇa offenders. If the latter did not carry out the penances then he was to break them by disciplines according to their ability except that he (the *purohita*) was not to prescribe corporal punishment and slavery for brāhmaṇa offenders.

(5) Most smṛtis lay down that a śrotriya (a brāhmaṇa learned in the Veda) was to be free from taxes. Certain passages of the Śat. Br. suggest that even in those times brāhmaṇas were not taxed.³²¹ Āp. Dh. S.³²² II. 10. 26. 10, Vas. Dh. S. 19. 23, Manu VII. 133 say this. Some claimed this exemption for all brāhmaṇas e. g. Vas. Dh. S. (I. 42-43) says "a king ruling over his subjects according to the rules of the śāstra should take the sixth part of all wealth except from brāhmaṇas"; the Viṣṇu Dh. S. III. 26 says 'a king should

320. तस्य चेच्छास्त्रमतिप्रवर्तेरन् । राजानं गमयेत् । राजा पुरोहितं धर्मार्थकुशलम् । स ब्राह्मणाभिमुख्यात् । बलविशेषेण वधदास्यवर्जं नियमैरुपशोषयेत् ॥ आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 10. 14-18.

321. अथातो दाक्षिणानाम् । मध्ये प्रति राष्ट्रस्य सदन्यद्भूमेश्च ब्राह्मणस्य च वित्तात् । शतपथ XIII. 6. 2. 18.

322. अकरः श्रोत्रियः । आप. ध. सू. II. 10. 26. 10. ; राजा तु धर्मेणादृशात् षष्ठं धनस्य हरेत् । अन्यत्र ब्राह्मणात् । वसिष्ठ I. 42-43 ; ब्राह्मणेभ्यः करादानं न कुर्यात् । ते हि राज्ञी धर्मेकरदाः । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र III. 26-27.

not recover taxes from brāhmanas'. Kauṭ.³²³ (II. 1) requires the king to make gifts of *brahmadeya* lands to *ṛtviks* (who officiate at solemn sacrifices), teachers, purohitas, śrotrīyas, that will yield substantial produce and on which no fines and taxes will be levied. The reason assigned was the belief that the king shared in the religious merit accumulated by the brāhmanas. Vas.³²⁴ (I. 44-46) explains ' (freedom from taxation is there) because he (the king) secures the sixth part of the iṣṭāpūrta (the merit due to sacrifices and performing charitable works of public utility) and it is declared (in a Brāhmaṇa text) that the brāhmaṇa enriches the Veda, he relieves (others) from calamities and therefore the brāhmaṇa is not a source of subsistence (i. e. should not be taxed by the king) since Soma is his king ; and it is further declared that bliss awaits after death (the king who does not tax brāhmanas).' The Viṣṇu Dh. S. III. 27 says ' they render unto him the tax of religious merit '. Manu VII. 136 says ' by the religious merit which the śrotriya accumulates every day when protected by the king, the king's life, wealth and kingdom increase.' Vide Manu 8. 305. This sentiment is expressed even by a great poet like Kālidāsa³²⁵ ' forest-dwellers give a sixth part of their *tapas* (merit due to austerities) to the king and that is an inexhaustible treasure '. It is further to be noted that not only śrotrīyas, but also many other persons were free from taxation. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 10. 26. 11-17) exempts from taxation all women of the four varṇas, all boys before they show signs of manhood (i. e. before they attain majority), those who stay with their teachers for learning (even though they may be grown up), those engaged in austerities and devoted to right practices, a śūdra who washes the feet (of men of the three higher classes), the blind, the dumb and the diseased, those who are forbidden to possess wealth (i. e. ascetics etc.). The Vas. Dh. S. (19. 23.)³²⁶ exempts from taxation the king's servants, helpless

323. ऋत्विगाचार्य-पुरोहित-श्रोत्रियेभ्यो ब्रह्मदेयान्यदण्डकराण्याभिरुपदायकानि प्रयच्छेत् । कौटिल्य II. 1.

324. दृष्टापूरतस्य तु षष्ठमंशं भजतीति ह । ब्राह्मणो वेदमाढ्यं करोति ब्राह्मण आपद उद्धारति तस्माद् ब्राह्मणोनाद्यः । सोमोस्य राजा भवतीति ह । प्रेत्य चाभ्युदयिकमिति ह विज्ञायते । वसिष्ठ I. 44-46 ; compare the passage from the Śatapatha quoted above in note 313.

325. यदुत्तिष्ठति वर्णेभ्यो दृष्टाणां क्षयि तत्फलम् । तपःपद्मागमक्षय्यं ददत्यारण्यका हि नः ॥ शाकुन्तल II. 13

326. अकरः श्रोत्रियो राजपुमाननाथप्रव्रजितबालवृद्धतरुणप्रजाताः । वसिष्ठ 19. 23

persons, ascetics, minors, senile men (above 70), young men, and women who are recently delivered. Manu VIII. 394 contains a similar provision. Brhat-Parāśara³²⁷ (chap. III, Jiv. part II p. 113) says 'a brāhmaṇa engaged in agriculture had to pay nothing to anybody'. It is extremely doubtful whether in actual practice kings respected all these rules. Note 275 shows that a brāhmaṇa engaging in agriculture had to pay $\frac{1}{8}$ th of the produce just as others did. An inscription of Vikramāditya V. found near Gadag dated śake 934 (1012 A. D.) refers to taxes levied even on upanayana, marriages and vedic sacrifices (E. I. vol. XX, pp. 64 and 70). The Śāntiparva (76. 2-10) contains an interesting disquisition on the taxation of brāhmaṇas. Those brāhmaṇas who have mastered all the lores and who treat all equally well are called brahmasama. Those brāhmaṇas who have studied the Ṛgveda, Yajurveda and Sāmaveda and who stick to the peculiar duties of their class are styled devasama (verses 2 and 3). A religious king should make those who are not śrotriyas and who do not kindle the sacred fires render taxes and forced labour (verse 5). Then certain brāhmaṇas are described as kṣatrasama and vaiśyasama. A king whose treasury is empty should levy taxes from all brāhmaṇas except those that are described as brahmasama and devasama.³²⁸ Even if these rules were honoured, the claim was not very excessive. The brāhmaṇas who ministered to the religious wants of the people and who were to conserve the religious literature and spiritual inheritance of the country and to teach without the liberty to make a contract for fees were never entitled to raise taxes from the people for their benefit. According to the practice of the Roman Catholic Church 'the clergy owed no allegiance to the secular power; they were not under the laws of the land, they paid no taxes to the State. All benefices were put under the Holy See and the Roman chancery compiled a tariff of prices for which each might be bought'. It would take too long to

327. ब्राह्मणस्तु कृषिं कुर्वन्वाहयेद्विच्छया धराम् । न किञ्चित्कस्य चिद्दद्यात् सर्वस्य प्रभुर्यतः ॥ बृहत्पराशर III.

328. विद्यालक्षणसंपन्नाः सर्वत्र समदर्शिनः । एते ब्रह्मसमा राजन् ब्राह्मणाः परिकीर्तिताः ॥ कर्णयजुःसामसंपन्नाः स्वेष्टु कर्मस्ववस्थिताः । एते देवसमा अश्रोत्रियाः सर्वे एव सर्वे चानाहिताग्रयः । तान् सर्वान् धार्मिको राजा बालिं विर्द्धिं च कारयेत् ॥ एतेभ्यो बलिमादद्याद्भिनकोशो महीपतिः । ऋते ब्रह्मसमेभ्यश्च देवकलेभ्य एव च ॥ शान्तिपर्व 76. 2-3, 5, 9.

enumerate the other exactions of the same kind—the Tithes, Annates, Procurations, Subsidies and Dispensations.³²⁹

(6) In the matter of treasure trove the brāhmaṇa was more favourably treated than members of other classes. If a treasure was found by a learned brāhmaṇa he was entitled to keep the whole of it; in other cases the treasure belonged to the king, except a sixth part which was given to the finder if he honestly informed the king about the finding of the treasure. If a king himself found buried treasure, he was to distribute half of it among brāhmaṇas and was to keep for himself the other half. Vide Gautama (X. 43-45), Vas Dh. S. (III. 13-14), Manu (VIII. 37-38), Yāj. II. 34-35, Viṣṇu Dh. S. (III. 56-64), Nārada (asvāmivikraya verses 7-8).

(7) The general rule about the property of one dying heirless is that it escheats to the king, but there was an exception in the case of an heirless brāhmaṇa. Such property was to be distributed among śrotriyas or brāhmaṇas. Vide Gautama³³⁰ 23. 39-40, Vas. Dh. S. 17. 84-87, Baud. Dh. S. I. 5. 118-122, Manu IX. 188-189, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 17. 13-14, Śāṅkha.³³¹

(8) The rule of the road was in favour of brāhmaṇas even as against the king. If on a road there was a crowd or obstruction, precedence was to be given to the cartman, to a very old man, to one suffering from a disease, to a woman, to a snātaka, to the king; but a king was to give precedence to a śrotriya—Gaut. VI. 21-22. Āp. adds that one carrying³³² a burden should be given precedence and all who desire their own welfare should

329. Vide Dean Inge in 'Christian Ethics' chap. IV pp. 160-161 for the enormous greed of the Romish Church.

330. ओत्रिया ब्राह्मणस्यानपत्यस्य रिक्तं भजेरन् । राजेतरेषाम् । गौतम 28. 39-40 ; न तु ब्राह्मणस्य राजा हरेत् । ब्रह्मस्वं तु विषं घोरम् । न विषं विषमित्याहुर्ब्रह्मस्वं विषमुच्यते । विषमेकाकिनं हन्ति ब्रह्मस्वं पुत्रपौत्रकमिति । त्रैविद्यसाधुभ्यः संप्रयच्छेत् । वसिष्ठ 17. 84-87.

331. परिपद्गामि वा ओत्रियद्वयं न राजगामि । शङ्ख quoted in वि. र. p. 598.

332. चक्रिदशमीस्थालुग्राह्यधूस्नातकराजभ्यः पथो दानम् । राजा तु ओत्रियाय । गौतम VI. 21-22; राज्ञः पन्था ब्राह्मणेनासमेत्य । समेत्य तु ब्राह्मणस्यैव पन्थाः । यानस्य भारानि निहितस्यातुरस्य स्त्रिया इति सर्वैर्दातव्यः । वर्णज्यायसां चेतैर्वर्णैः । अशिष्टपतितमचोन्मत्तानामात्मस्वस्त्ययनाथेन सर्वैरेव दातव्यः । आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 11. 5-9; अन्धस्य पन्था बधिरस्य पन्थाः स्त्रियः पन्था भारवाहस्य पन्थाः । राज्ञः पन्था ब्राह्मणेनासमेत्य समेत्य तु ब्राह्मणस्यैव पन्थाः ॥ वनपर्व 133. 1; पन्था देवो ब्राह्मणाय गोभ्यो राजभ्य एव च । वृद्धाय भारतसाय गर्भिण्यै दुर्बलस्य च । अनुशासन 104. 25-26. This is almost the same as जो. ध. सू. II. 3. 57 (which reads गवे राज्ञे ह्यचक्षुषे); the latter half of Vana-parva 133. 1 is the same as Āp. Dh. S. II. 11. 5.5-6. Vide शङ्ख 'अथ ब्राह्मणायास्ये पन्था देवो राज्ञ इत्येके । तच्चाशिष्टं गुरुज्यैश्च ब्राह्मणो राजानमतिक्षेते तस्मै पन्थाः ।' quoted by the मिता. on या. I. 117.

give precedence to fools, *patita*, the intoxicated and lunatics and a person of a lower varṇa should give precedence to one of a higher varṇa. The Mahābhārata (Vanaparva 133. 1) adds the blind and the deaf, (Anuśāsana 104. 25-26) cows, a pregnant woman and a weak man. Vas. Dh. S. (13. 58-60) enumerates the same persons, but says that the snātaka (one who has just returned from his stay with his *guru*) has precedence over the king and that the bride has precedence over all when being taken in a procession (to the house of the bridegroom). Manu II. 138-139 has the same list and prefers the snātaka to the king; Yāj. I. 117 has the same rules. Śaṅkha (quoted in the Mit. on Yāj. I. 117) mentions the view of some that the king has precedence over the brāhmaṇa, but disapproves of it. Vide Brahmapurāṇa 113. 39 for a list. The Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa (34. 39-41) has a long list which includes a prostitute and one who is an enemy. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. (V. 91) prescribes a fine of 25 kārṣāpanas for him who does not give precedence on the road to one who deserves it. It will be conceded by every one that the above rules (except the one about the precedence of brāhmaṇas over even the king) are quite reasonable and are informed by a spirit of humanity and chivalry. The rule about learned brāhmaṇas probably owes its origin to the emphasis laid on the importance of the diffusion of learning (which was not the direct concern of the state in those days, but of the brāhmaṇas) and the superiority of knowledge over mere brute force or military achievements.

(9) The person of the brāhmaṇa was regarded as very sacred from ancient times and so *brahmahatyā* (killing a brāhmaṇa) was looked upon as the greatest sin. The Tai. S.³³³ (V. 3. 12. 1-2) says that he who performs the horse-sacrifice goes beyond (i. e. gets rid of) all sins, even the sin of brāhmaṇa-murder. The Tai. S. II. 5. 1. 1 narrates how Indra incurred the sin of *brahmahatyā* by killing Viśvarūpa and how all beings ran him down as 'brahmahan'. In the Śat. Br. XIII. 3. 1. 1 we read (S. B. E. vol. 44 p. 328) ' thereby the gods redeem all sin, yea, even the slaying of a brāhmaṇa they thereby redeem ' and ' whosoever kills a human brāhmaṇa here he forsooth is deemed guilty, how much more so who strikes him (Soma), for Soma is god ' (S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 243). The Chāndogya Up. V. 10. 9 quotes

333. अपि चैतेन ब्रह्महत्यामतरत् सर्वं पाप्मानं तरति तरति ब्रह्महत्यां चोश्वमेधेन यजते ॥ तै. सं. V. 3. 12. 1-2. The words सर्वं यजते are quoted by Gaut. 19. 9. and Vas. 22. 6.

a verse declaring brāhmaṇa murder as one of the five mortal sins (*mahāpātakas*). Gaut. (21. 1) places the murderer of a brāhmaṇa at the head of his list of *patitas* (persons guilty of mortal sins). Vas. Dh. S. (I. 20) uses the word *bhrūṇahatyā*.³³⁴ Manu XI. 54, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 35. 1, Yāj. III. 227 enumerate five mahāpātakas of which brāhmaṇa-murder is one. Manu VIII. 381 declares that there is no worse sin in the world than brāhmaṇa-murder.

A question that very much exercised the minds of all smṛtikāras and writers of digests³³⁵ was whether a brāhmaṇa who was himself guilty of violence or serious offences could be killed in self-defence by one attacked. The dicta of the smṛtis are somewhat conflicting. Manu IV. 162 lays down a general rule prohibiting *himsā* (death or injury) of one's teacher (of Veda), expounder (of the meaning of the Veda), one's parents, one's other teachers (or elders), brāhmaṇas, cows and all persons engaged in austerities. Manu XI. 89 lays down that there is no expiation (*prāyaścitta*) that will wipe off the sin of intentionally killing a brāhmaṇa. But Manu himself (VIII. 350-351=Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 189-190=Matsyapurāṇa 227. 115-117=Vṛddha-Hārta IX. 349-350) says 'one may surely kill without hesitation a man who comes down upon one as an ātatāyin³³⁶ (a desperate character or violent man), whether he be a teacher, a child or an old man or a learned brāhmaṇa. In killing an ātatāyin, the killer incurs no sin (or fault), whether he kills him in the presence of people or alone; (in such a case) wrath meets wrath'. Vas. Dh. S. (III. 15-18) expressly says 'by killing an ātatāyin they say the killer incurs no sin whatever' and quotes three verses 'an incendiary, a poisoner, one armed with a weapon, a robber, one who wrests a field or carries away one's wife—these six are called ātatāyin. When

334. The word 'bhrūṇa' has several meanings. Baud. Gr. (I. 4. 8) says that bhrūṇa is one who knows the whole Vedic lore of his śukhā up to sūtra and *pravacana* (bhāṣya?); Vaik. (I. 1) says that bhrūṇa is a brāhmaṇa learned in the Veda who has performed soma sacrifices. Vide note 290 above. Gaut. 21. 9 uses the word in the sense of 'garbha (foetus)', while in Gaut. 17. 9 'bhrūṇahā' is equal to 'brahmahā'. Both Baud. Dh. S. I. 5. 94 and Vas. Dh. S. II. 42 quote a verse where bhrūṇahā means brahmahā, while Vas. Dh. S. 20. 23 gives two meanings to it.

335. Vide Viśvarūpa on Yāj. III. 222 and the Mit. on Yāj II. 21, Aparārka pp. 1042-44, Sm. C. (Vyavahāra pp. 313-15.).

336. 'Ātatāyin' literally means 'one who goes with his bow strung (i. e. ready to kill or fight). Śiva is called ātatāyin in Vāj. S. 16. 18 and Kāṭhaka-saṃhitā 17. 12.

an ātatāyin comes (to attack) with the desire to kill (or harm), one may kill him even though he be a complete master of Vedānta; by so doing one does not become a brāhmaṇa-murderer. If a person kills one who has studied the Veda and who is born of a good family, because the latter is an ātatāyin, he does not thereby become a brāhmaṇa-murderer as in that case fury meets fury.'³³⁷ In the Śāntiparva (34. 17 and 19)³³⁸ we have similar verses ' If a brāhmaṇa approaches wielding a weapon in a battle and desirous of killing a person, the latter may kill him even if the former be a complete master of the Veda. If a person kills a brāhmaṇa ātatāyin who has swerved from right conduct, he does not thereby.....fury '. Udyogaparva (178. 51-52) says that, if a man kills in a battle a brāhmaṇa who fights like a kṣatriya, it is a settled rule that he does not incur the sin of brāhmaṇa-murder. Śānti (22. 5-6) is to the same effect. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. (V. 191-192) speaks of seven persons as ātatāyin viz. ' one who has a weapon ready to strike, one who is about to set fire or administer poison, one who has raised his hand to give a curse, who sets about to kill by the magic rites mentioned in the Atharvaveda (e. g. such sūktas as I. 19, II. 19, III. 1-2, VII. 108), one who is a back-biter and informs the king, one who violates or assaults another's wife.' The Matsyapurāṇa (227. 117-119) is practically to the same effect. Sumantu as quoted by the Mīt. (on Yāj. II. 21) and by Aparārka (p. 1043) says ' there is no sin in killing an ātatāyin except a cow or a brāhmaṇa ' .³³⁹ This implies that a brāhmaṇa even if an ātatāyin should not be killed, but if he be killed sin is incurred. Kātyāyana³⁴⁰ (quoted in the Sm. C. and other digests) declares that one should not kill a brāhmaṇa who is eminent by reason of his *tapas*, Vedic study and birth, even though he be an ātatāyin; Bhṛgu allows killing when the offender is of a lower caste than that of brāhmaṇa. Bṛhaspati³⁴¹ also says that he who would not kill a brāhmaṇa ātatāyin

337. This last verse is also quoted in Baud. Dh. S. I. 10. 14 and the latter half of it is the same as Śāntiparva 15. 55.

338. प्रयुद्धं शस्त्रमायान्तमपि वेदान्तं रणे । जिघांसन्तं जिघांसीयाञ्च तेन ब्रह्महा भवेत् ॥ ज्ञान्ति 34. 17.

339. नाततायिवधे दोषोऽन्यत्र यो ब्राह्मणात् । सुमन्तु in मित. on य. II. 21.

340. आततायिनि चोत्कृष्टे तपःस्वाध्यायजन्मतः । वधस्तत्र तु नैव स्यात्पापे हीने वधो भूयः ॥ कात्यायन in स्मृतिच० (व्यवहार p. 315)

341. आततायिनस्तुत्कृष्टं वृत्तस्वाध्यायसंयुतम् । यो न हन्याद्वधमात्रं सोऽश्वमेधफलं लभेत् । बृहस्पति quoted in स्मृतिच० (स्व. p. 315)

deserving to be killed for his violence would obtain the merit of an *Aśvamedha* sacrifice.

Commentators and writers of digests differ in their interpretations. *Viśvarūpa*³⁴² (on *Yāj.* III. 222) remarks that he is guilty of *brāhmaṇa*-murder who kills a *brāhmaṇa* except in battle or except when the latter is an *ātatāyin*, or who kills a *brāhmaṇa* (not an *ātatāyin* nor fighting) on his own account without being employed by another or who brings about the death of such a *brāhmaṇa* by hiring another to perpetrate the murder for money. He further adds that the man who kills a *brāhmaṇa* at the instigation of another for money is not guilty of the sin of *brāhmaṇa*-murder, but it is the instigator who is so guilty on the analogy of the rule that the merit or fruit of a sacrifice belongs to him on whose behalf the *ṛtviks* perform it. The *Mit.*³⁴³ on *Yāj.* (II. 21) says that the real purport of *Manu* VIII. 350-351 is not to ordain that a *brāhmaṇa* must be killed if he is an *ātatāyin*, but those two verses are only an *arthavāda* (laudatory or recommendatory dicta), the real meaning being that even a *guru* and a *brāhmaṇa* who are most highly honoured and who are not fit to be killed at all, may have to be killed if *ātatāyins* (then what of others?). The final conclusion of the *Mit.* is that if a *brāhmaṇa* who is an *ātatāyin* is being opposed in self-defence without any desire to kill him and if he dies through mistake or inattention, then the killer incurs no punishment at the hand of the king and has to undergo a slight *prāyaścitta* i. e. there is really a prohibition to kill an *ātatāyin* *brāhmaṇa* and verses like *Manu* VIII. 351 refer to an *ātatāyin* who is not a *brāhmaṇa*. *Medhātithi* appears to have held the same view (on *Manu* VIII. 350-351). *Kullūka* explains *Manu* VIII. 350 as meaning that 'a *guru* or a *brāhmaṇa* or others coming as *ātatāyins* may be killed when it is impossible to save oneself even by fleeing from them'. *Aparārka* is of opinion³⁴⁴

342. आततायिसंग्रामव्यतिरेकेण यो ब्राह्मणमन्येनाप्रयुक्तः स्वातन्त्र्येण हन्यद्वा, अन्यं वा द्रव्यदानादिना वशीकृत्य घातयति स प्रत्येतस्यः । यस्तु धनक्रीतः परप्रयुक्तो हन्यात् तस्य स्वामिनामित्वात्क्रियाफलानामृत्विजामिव ब्रह्महत्याजन्यफलसंबन्धो नास्त्येव । विश्वरूप on *या.* III. 222.

343. नाततायिवधे दोषो हन्तुर्भवति कश्चनेत्येतदपि ब्राह्मणादिव्यतिरिक्तविषयमेव । अतश्च ब्राह्मणादय आततायिनश्च आत्मादित्राणार्थं हिंसानभिसंधिना निवार्यमाणाः प्रमादाद्यदि विपद्येरंस्तत्र लघु प्रायश्चित्तं राजदण्डाभावश्चेति निश्चयः । मिता० on *या.* II. 21.

344. तद्वापारनिवारणं च यत्र वधस्तरेण न संभवति तत्रैव तद्वधस्तथा । यत्र तु दण्डाद्विप्रहारमात्रेणैव शत्रवो निवारयितुं तत्र तु तद्वधो दोषनिमित्तमेव । अपरार्क on *या.* III. 227 p. 1043.

that where an ātatāyin brāhmaṇa cannot be prevented from his wicked intent except by killing him, there only the śāstras allow the killing of a brāhmaṇa but where it is possible to ward him off by a mere blow (i. e. without actually killing him) there would be the sin of brāhmaṇa-murder if he were actually killed. The Sm. C. in a long note appears to hold that an ātatāyin brāhmaṇa rushing upon a man to kill him may be killed by the person attacked (there is no sin and no punishment nor penance for it), that a brāhmaṇa ātatāyin (who does not come to kill but) who only siezes one's fields or wife should not be killed (but lesser harm may be done to him with impunity) and that kṣatriyas and others if ātatāyin may be killed outright. The Vyavahāra-Mayūkha³⁴⁵ adds a rider that, on account of the prescription contained in the section on kalivarjya (actions forbidden in the Kali age) viz. 'the killing in a properly conducted fight of brāhmaṇas that are ātatāyin' (is forbidden in Kali), an ātatāyin brāhmaṇa even when about to kill a person should not be killed by that person in the Kali age, that such a brāhmaṇa was allowed to be killed in former ages, that an ātatāyin brāhmaṇa other than one bent upon killing another was not be killed in all ages. The Viramitrodaya (pp. 19-27) has a long disquisition on this subject but space forbids us from giving even a brief summary of it. It will have been noticed how the sacredness of the brāhmaṇa's person went on increasing in later ages.

(10) Even threatening a brāhmaṇa with assault, or striking him or drawing blood from his body drew the severest condemnation from very ancient times. The Tai.³⁴⁶ S. (II. 6. 10. 1-2) contains these words 'He who threatens a brāhmaṇa should be fined a hundred, he who strikes a brāhmaṇa should be fined a thousand, he who draws blood would not reach (or find) the abode of pitṛs for as many years as the dust particles that may be made into a paste by the quantity of blood drawn. Therefore one should not threaten a brāhmaṇa with assault, nor strike him nor draw his blood'. Gaut. (22. 20-22) has a

345. किं च 'आततायिद्विजाग्न्याणां धर्मशुद्धेन हिंसनम्' इति कलौ वधोद्यतस्याततायिनो विप्रस्य हननं निषिद्धम्। व्यवहारमयूख p. 242; for कलिवर्ज्य texts vide Appendix.

346. योऽपशुरतै शतेन यातयाद्यो निहनत् सहस्रेण यातयाद्यो लोहितं करवद्यावतः प्रकथपांश्च संयुह्यात् तावतः संवत्सरान् पितृलोकं न प्रजानादिति। तस्मात् ब्राह्मणाय नापशुरेत न निहन्यान्न लोहितं कुर्यात्। ते. सं. II. 6. 10. 1-2.

similar³⁴⁷ dictum, viz. that threatening a brāhmaṇa with assault in wrath prevents entry into heaven for a hundred years (or leads to hell for a hundred years) &c. Jaimini III. 4. 17 considers the question whether the passage in the Tai. S. is kvatvartha or puruṣārtha.

(11) For certain offences a brāhmaṇa received lesser punishment than members of other classes. For example, Gaut. says³⁴⁸ 'if a kṣatriya reviled a brāhmaṇa the fine was one hundred (kārṣāpanas), if a vaiśya did so it was 150; but if a brāhmaṇa reviled a kṣatriya the fine was 50; if he reviled a vaiśya it was only 25, and if a brāhmaṇa reviled a śūdra he was not to be fined.' Vide Manu VIII. 267-268 (but Manu prescribes a fine of twelve for a brāhmaṇa reviling a śūdra) which are the same as Nārada (vākpāruṣya verses 15-16), Yāj. II. 206-207. But in the case of certain crimes the brāhmaṇa was to receive heavier punishment. For example, in the case of theft, if a śūdra thief was fined³⁴⁹ eight, a vaiśya 16 and a kṣatriya 32, a brāhmaṇa was fined 64, 100 or 128. Vide Gaut. 21. 12-14 and Manu VIII. 337-338.

(12) According to Gaut.³⁵⁰ (XIII. 4) a brāhmaṇa could not be cited as a witness by a litigant who was not a brāhmaṇa and the king would not summon him, provided he (the brāhmaṇa) was not an attesting witness on a document. Nārada (ṛṇādāna verse 158) lays down that³⁵¹ 'śrotriya, those engaged in austerities, old men, those who have become ascetics, are not to be witnesses because the authoritative texts so prescribe but there is no cause assigned for this rule.' So Nārada's view was that a śrotriya could never be cited as a witness by any litigant (even by a brāhmaṇa litigant). Gaut. impliedly shows that even a śrotriya could be cited as a witness by a brāhmaṇa. Manu VIII. 65, Viṣṇu Dh. S. VIII. 2 also forbid citing a śrotriya as a witness.

347. असिकुद्धावगोरणं ब्राह्मणस्य वर्षशतमस्वर्ग्यम् । निघाते सहस्रम् । लोहितदर्शने यावतस्तत्पस्कच पांशु संयुङ्हीयात् । गौतम 22. 20-22.

348. शतं क्षत्रियो ब्राह्मणाकोशे । अर्धयर्षै वैश्यः । ब्राह्मणस्तु क्षत्रिये पञ्चाशत् । तदर्थं वैश्ये । न ह्यदे किञ्चित् । गौतम 21. 6-10.

349. अष्टापाद्यं स्तेयकलिवर्षं शूद्रस्य । द्विगुणोत्तराणीतरेषां प्रतिवर्णम् । विदुषोऽतिक्रमे दण्डभूयस्त्वम् । गौतम 21. 12-14

350. ब्राह्मणस्त्वब्राह्मणवचनादनवरोभ्योऽनिबद्धश्चेत् । गौ. XIII. 4.

351. ओत्रियास्तापसा वृद्धा ये च प्रवजिता नराः । असाक्षिणस्ते वचसात्र हेतुपक्ष-वृत्तः ॥ नारद (ऋणादान 158).

(13) Only certain brāhmaṇas were to be invited for dinner in śrāddhas and in rites for gods. Vide Gaut. 15. 5 and 9, Āp. Dh. S. II. 7. 17. 4, Manu III. 124 and 128, Yāj. I. 217, 219, 221.

(14) Certain sacrifices could be performed only by brāhmaṇas. For example, the Sautrāmaṇi sacrifice and the sacrifices called sattras could be performed only by brāhmaṇas.³⁵² But it has to be noted that the Rājasūya sacrifice could be performed only by kṣatriyas and that according to Jaimini VI. 6. 24-26 even brāhmaṇas of Bhṛgu, Śunaka and Vasiṣṭha gotras could not perform a sattra.

(15) The periods of mourning were less in the case of brāhmaṇas. Gaut. 14. 1-4 prescribes ten days of mourning for brāhmaṇas, eleven for kṣatriyas, twelve for vaiśyas and a month for śūdras. Vas. Dh. S. IV. 27-30, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 1-4, Manu V. 83, Yāj. III. 22 contain similar provisions. Later on ten days' mourning came to be prescribed for all castes.³⁵³

Several other lesser privileges are enumerated by Nārada (prakīrnaka, verses 35-39) 'The king shall show his face in the morning before brāhmaṇas first of all and shall salute them all. When nine or seven persons (of different rank) meet, they shall first make room for the brāhmaṇa to pass³⁵⁴ by. Further privileges assigned to brāhmaṇas are: free access to the houses of other people for the purpose of begging alms; the right to collect fuel, flowers, water and the like without its being regarded as a theft³⁵⁵ and to converse with other men's wives without being restrained (in such conversation) by others; and the right to cross rivers without paying any fare for the ferry-boat and to be conveyed (to the other bank) before other people. When engaged in trading and using a ferry boat, they shall have to pay no toll. A brāhmaṇa who is engaged in travelling, who is tired and has

352. सत्राणि ब्राह्मणानामुत्तिक्रुतेः । कात्या. श्रौ. I. 6. 13 ; so also Jaimini VI. 6. 16-23 for सत्रs and VI. 6. 24-26 for the proposition that ब्राह्मणs of भृगु, शुनक and वसिष्ठ gotras were not entitled to perform सत्रs.

353. सर्वेषामेव वर्णानां सूतके सूतके तथा । दशाहाच्छुद्धिरेतेषामिति शातातपोऽ-
ब्रवीत् ॥ अङ्गिरसू in नितान् on या. III. 22.

354. Vide privilege No. 8 (rule about making way) above. Gau-
tama (VI. 21-22 quoted above p. 146) names seven persons, while
Vasiṣṭha (13. 58-60) mentions nine persons about this rule. Nārada has
probably these two sūtra works in view here.

355. Vide आप. ध. सू. I. 10. 23. 3, ननु VIII. 339, या. II. 166.

nothing to eat, commits no wrong by taking two canes of sugar or two esculent roots.

There were some disabilities also in the case of brāhmaṇas which have been indicated in the above discussion (viz. as to avocations, selling articles &c.).

It may be convenient to bring together the disabilities of the śūdra :

(1) He was not allowed to study the Veda. Many of the smṛtikāras and writers of digests³⁵⁶ quote several Vedic passages on this point. A śruti text reads '(The Creator) created the brāhmaṇa with Gāyatrī (metre), the rājanya with Triṣṭubh, the vaiśya with Jagatī, but he did not create the śūdra with any metre; therefore the śūdra is known to be unfit for the saṃskāra (of upanayana)'. The study of the Veda follows after Upanayana and the Veda speaks of the Upanayana of only three classes³⁵⁷ 'one should perform upanayana for a brāhmaṇa in spring, for a rājanya in summer and in śarad (autumn) for a vaiśya.' Not only was the śūdra not to study the Veda, but Veda study was not to be carried on in his presence (vide note 75 above).³⁵⁸ This attitude need not cause wonder. The sacred Vedic literature was largely created and preserved entirely by the brāhmaṇas (the kṣatriyas contributing if at all a very small share in that task). If the brāhmaṇas desired to keep their sacred treasure for the twice-born classes in these circumstances, it is understandable and for those ages even excusable. In the 20th century there are vast majorities who are not allowed by small minorities of imperialistic and capitalistic tendencies to control the just and equitable distribution of the material goods produced mostly by the labour and co-operation of those majorities and doctrines are being openly professed that certain races alone should be imparted higher and scientific knowledge while other so-called inferior races should be only hewers of wood and drawers of water.

356. गायत्र्या ब्राह्मणमष्टुजत त्रिष्टुभा राजन्यं जगत्या वैश्यं न केनचिच्छन्दसा शूद्र-
नित्यसंस्कार्यो विज्ञायते । वसिष्ठ IV. 3, quoted by अपरार्क p. 23 who quotes
यम 'न केनचित्समष्टुजच्छन्दसा तं प्रजापातिः ।'

357. वसन्ते ब्राह्मणमुपनयीत ग्रीष्मे राजन्यं शरदि वैश्यमिति । This is the basis
of Jaimini VI. 1. 33 and is relied on by Śabara. Vide Āp. Dh. S. I. 1.1.6.

358. अथापि यमगीताञ्श्लोकास्तदाहरन्ति । इमं ज्ञानमेतत्प्रत्यक्षं ये शूद्राः पादचारिणः ।
तस्माच्छूद्रसमीपे तु नाध्येतव्यं कदाचन ॥ वसिष्ठ 18. 13. Vide गो. 16. 18-19, आप.
ध. सू. I. 3. 9. 9 (ज्ञानानवच्छेदपतितौ), या. I. 148, आद्विपर्व 64. 20.

There are however faint traces that in ancient times this prohibition of Veda study was not so absolute and universal as the smṛtis make it. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad IV. 1-2, we have the story of Jānaśruti Pautrāyana and Raikva where the latter addresses Jānaśruti as śūdra and imparts to him the Samvarga (absorption) vidyā.³⁵⁹ It appears that Jānaśruti was a śūdra to whom the vidyā embodied in the Chāndogya (which is also Veda) was imparted. It is no doubt true that in the Vedāntasūtra³⁶⁰ (I. 3. 34) the word śūdra is explained not as referring to the class, but as meaning that sorrow (*śuc*) arose in Jānaśruti on hearing the contemptuous talk of the flamingoes about himself and he was overcome (from *dru*) by that (i. e. śūdra is derived from *śuc* and *dru*). But this far-fetched explanation had to be given because of the practice current in the times of the Vedāntasūtras that the śūdra is not entitled to study the Veda. Gaut. XII. 4 went so far as to prescribe 'if the śūdra intentionally listens for committing to memory the Veda, then his ears should be filled with (molten) lead and lac; if he utters the Veda, then his tongue may be cut off; if he has mastered the Veda his body should be hacked'³⁶¹.

Though the śūdra could not study the Veda, he was not debarred from hearing the itihāsas (like the Mahābhārata) and the Purāṇas. The³⁶² Mahābhārata (Śānti 328. 49) expressly says that the four varṇas should hear the Mahābhārata through a brāhmaṇa as reader. The Bhāgavatapurāṇa³⁶³ says that as the three Vedas cannot be learnt by women, śūdras and brāhmaṇas (who are so only by birth), the sage (Vyāsa) composed the story of the Bhārata out of compassion for them. The Śūdrakamalākara³⁶⁴ (pp. 13-14) cites several passages from the purāṇas

359. तसु ह परः प्रत्युवाचाह हरित्वा शूद्र तवैव सह गोभिरास्त्विति । छान्दोग्य IV.2.3.

360. शुगस्य तदनादुरश्रवणात्तदाद्रवणात्सूच्यते हि । वेदान्तसूत्र I. 3. 34; vide वायुपुराण vol. I. 8. 158 where this derivation is followed.

361. अथ हास्य वेदसुपश्रवतस्त्रपुजतुभ्यां ओत्रपूरणमुदाहरणे जिह्वाच्छेदो धारणे शरीरभेदः । गौतम 12. 4; vide मुच्छकटिक IX. 21. 'वेदार्थान् प्राकृतस्त्वं वदसि न च ते जिह्वा निपतिता'

362. आचयेच्चतुरो वर्णान्कृत्वा ब्राह्मणमग्रतः । शान्तिपर्व 328. 49; vide also आदिपर्व 62. 22, and 95. 87.

363. स्त्रीशूद्रद्विजबन्धूनां त्रयी न श्रुतिगोचरा । इति भारतमाख्यानं सुनिना कृपया कृतम् ॥ भागवत I. 4. 25; vide त्रिकाण्डमण्डन IV. 28 ब्रह्मत्याकरणं कृत्वा हुत्वा वै पावके हविः । शालग्रामशिलां स्पृष्ट्वा शूद्रो गच्छत्यधोगतिम् ॥

364. तस्मिन् शूद्रस्य विमद्वारा पुराणश्रवणेन ज्ञानमिति । शूद्रकम. p. 17; पुराण-श्रवणं विमोक्षरसिंहस्य पूजनम् । वृसिंहपुराण । 58. 13.

to the effect that the śūdra could not study the smṛtis and purāṇas by himself. Even Manu II. 16 seems to suggest that only the dvijātis had the privilege to listen to the Manusmṛti (and not śūdras). The only privilege conceded by the Sūdrakamalākara to the śūdra is that he can acquire knowledge by listening to the purāṇas read by a brāhmaṇa (p. 17); the Kalpataru and other works allowed the śūdra to read and repeat Purāṇa mantras. Śaṅkarācārya on Vedāntasūtra (I. 3. 38) quotes Śānti 328. 49 and says that the śūdra has no *adhikāra* (eligibility) for brāhmaṇavidyā based upon a study of the Veda, but that a śūdra can attain spiritual development (just as Vidura and Dharmavyādhya mentioned in the Mahābhārata did) and that he may attain to *mokṣa*, the fruit of correct knowledge. In certain digests we find a smṛti quotation to the effect that śūdras are Vājasaneyins. This is³⁶⁵ explained as meaning that the śūdra should follow the procedure prescribed in the gṛhyasūtra of the Vājasaneyi Śākhā and a brāhmaṇa should repeat the mantra for him. This is probably based on the Harivaṃśa (Bhaviṣyat-parva, chap. III. 13) " all will expound brahma; all will be Vājasaneyins; when the *yuga* comes to a close śūdras will make use of the word ' bhoḥ ' in address " (sarve brahma vadiṣyanti sarve Vājasaneyinaḥ).

(2) The śūdras were not to consecrate sacred fires and to perform the solemn Vedic sacrifices. Vide note 73 above. Jaimini (I. 3. 25-38) elaborately discusses this question and arrives at the conclusion that the śūdra cannot consecrate the three sacred fires and so cannot perform Vedic rites. Among the reasons given are that in several Vedic passages only the three higher classes are referred to in the case of the consecration of fires, about the *sāmans* to be sung, about the food to be taken when observing *vrata*.³⁶⁶ It is however interesting to note that at least one ancient teacher (Bādari)³⁶⁷ was found who advocated that

365. तेन ब्राह्मणेन तत्र मन्त्रः पठनीय इति तात्पर्यम् । तत्र यजुर्वेदिको मन्त्रः । तथा स्मृतिः । आर्षक्रमेण सर्वत्र शूद्रा वाजसनेयिनः । अस्माच्छूद्रः स्वयं कर्म यजुर्वेदीव कारयेत् ॥ आर्षक्रमेण शुन्युक्तक्रमेण यजुर्वेदिसंवाच्यगृह्यादिना । शूद्रकृत्यतत्त्वं (p. 634). The वर्षक्रियाशौचदी (p. 575) quotes the words शूद्रा वाजसनेयिनः as from कूर्मपुराण, while शूद्रकर्म. p. 51 says शूद्रा वाजसनेयिन इति गौडनिबन्धे दक्षोक्तेः ।

366. वसन्ते ब्राह्मणोऽग्नीनादधीत ग्रीष्मे राजन्यः शरदि वैश्यः । पयो व्रतं ब्राह्मणस्य दवागू राजन्यस्य आमिक्षा वैश्यस्य । These are the vedic texts relied upon by Jaimini (I. 3. 25-38) and Śabara.

367. निमित्तार्थेन वादस्तिस्मात्सर्वाधिकारं स्यात् । जै I. 3. 27.

even śūdras could perform Vedic sacrifices. The Bhāradvāja Śrauta sūtra³⁶⁸ (V. 2. 8) states the opinion of some that the śūdra can consecrate the three sacred Vedic fires. The Kātyāyana-śrautasūtra (I. 4. 5) prescribes that all can perform Vedic rites except those who are deficient in a limb, who are not learned in the³⁶⁹ Veda, who are impotent and śūdras; but the commentary thereon states by way of pūrvapakṣa that there are certain Vedic texts which lead to the inference that the Śūdra had the adhikāra for Vedic rites e. g. in Śat. Br. I. 1. 4. 12 (S. B. E. vol. XII. p. 28) it is said with reference to the Haviṣkṛt call "Now there are four different forms of this call, viz. 'Come hither' (ehi) in the case of a brāhmaṇa; 'approach' (āgahi) and 'hasten hither' (ādrava) in the case of a vaiśya and a member of the military caste and 'run hither' (ādhāva) in that of a śūdra." Similarly in the Somayāga in place of the payovrata (vow to drink milk only) mastu (whey) is prescribed for śūdra (indicating thereby that the śūdra could perform Somayāga) and in Śat. Br. (XIII 8. 3. 11, S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 435) with reference to sepulchral mounds it is said 'for the kṣatriya he may make as high as a man with upstretched arms, for a brāhmaṇa reaching up to the mouth, for a woman up to the hips, for a vaiśya up to the thighs, for a śūdra up to the knee'. The commentary on the Kātyāyana Śrauta I. 1. 6 says that the word śūdra here stands for rathakāra because (acc. to Yāj, I. 91) his mother's mother is a śūdra woman.

Though the śūdra was not authorized to perform Vedic rites, he was entitled to perform what is called *pūrta-dharma*³⁷⁰ i. e. the building of wells, tanks, temples, parks and distribution of food as works of charity and gifts on such occasions as eclipses and the Sun's passage from one zodiacal sign into another and on the 12th and other *tithis*. He was allowed to perform the five daily sacrifices called Mahāyajñas

368. विद्यते चतुर्थस्य वर्णस्यान्याधेयमित्येके न विद्यत इत्यपरम् । भारद्वाजश्रौतसूत्र V. 2. 8. (Journal of Vedic studies, Lahore, vol I for Sep. 1934).

369. अङ्गहीनाश्रोत्रियवण्डशूद्रवर्जम् । कात्या. श्रौ. सू. I. 4. 5; com. आधावेति शूद्रस्य मस्तु शूद्रस्येति सोमे पयोव्रतस्थाने । अष्टीवद्दग्धं शूद्रस्येति पितृमेधे । The first is śatpथ I. 1. 4. 12 and the last is śatpथ XIII. 8. 3. 11.

370. इष्टापूर्तो द्विजातीनां सामान्यौ धर्मसाधनौ । अधिकारी भवेच्छूद्रः पूर्वधर्मे न वैदिके ॥ अत्रि verse 46; लघुशङ्ख verse 6; अपरार्क p. 24 'वापिकूपतडागादि देवता-यतनानि च । अन्नप्रदानमारामः पूर्वमित्यभिधीयते ॥ ग्रहोपरामे यद्दानं सूर्यसंक्रमणेषु च । द्वादश्यादौ च यद्दानं पूर्वमित्यभिधीयते ॥ The first verse is quoted from the महाभारत and the second from जातुकर्ण.

in the ordinary fire, he could perform śrāddha, he was to think of the devatās and utter loudly the word 'namaḥ' which was to be the only *mantra* in his case (i. e. he was not to say 'Agnaye svāhā' but to think of Agni and say³⁷¹ 'namaḥ'). Manu X. 127 prescribes that all religious rites for the śūdra are without (Vedic) *mantras*. According to some the śūdra could also have what is called *Vaivāhika* fire (i. e. fire kindled at the time of marriage) in Manu III 67 and Yāj. I. 97, but Medhātithi (on the same verse), the Mit. (on Yāj. I. 121), the Madanapārijāta (p. 231) and other works say that he should offer oblations in the ordinary fire and that there is no *Vaivāhika* fire for the śūdra. All persons including the śūdras and even cāṇḍālas were authorized to repeat the Rāmamantra of 13 letters (Sri Rāma jaya Rāma jaya jaya Rāma) and the Śiva mantra of five letters (namaḥ Śivāya), while dvijātis could repeat the Śiva mantra of six letters (Om namaḥ Śivāya). Vide Śūdra-kamalākara pp. 30-31, where passages of Varāha, Vāmana and Bhaviṣya Purāṇas are cited to show that śūdras are entitled to learn and repeat mantras of Viṣṇu from the Pāñcarātra texts and of Śiva, the Sun, Śakti and Vināyaka. The Varāhapurāṇa (128. 22-31) describes the initiation (dikṣā) of a śūdra as a devotee of Viṣṇu (as a bhāgavata).

(3) As to Samskāras, there is some apparent conflict among the authorities. Manu X. 126 says 'The śūdra incurs no sin (by eating forbidden articles like onions and garlic), he is not fit for samskāras, he has no *adhikāra* for (authority to perform) *dharma* nor is he forbidden from performing *dharma*' and in IV. 80 (which is the same as Vas. Dh. S. 18. 14 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 48-52) we see 'one should not give advice to a śūdra, nor give him leavings of food nor of sacrificial oblations, one

371. अनुज्ञातोऽस्य नमस्कारो मन्त्रः । पाकयज्ञैः स्वयं यजेतेत्येके । गौ. 10. 66-67 ; पञ्चयज्ञविधानं तु शूद्रस्यापि विधीयते । तस्य प्रोक्तो नमस्कारः कुर्वन्निर्व्यं न हीयते ॥ लघुविष्णु V. 9 ; दानं च दद्याच्छूद्रोऽपि पाकयज्ञैर्यजेत च । पित्र्यादिकं च वै सर्वं शूद्रः कुर्वीत तेन वै ॥ विष्णुपुराण III. 8. 33. ; स्वाहाकारवपदकारौ मन्त्रः शूद्रे न विद्यते । तस्माच्छूद्रः पाकयज्ञैर्यजेताव्रतवान् स्वयम् ॥ शान्तिपर्व 60. 37-38; या. I. 121 'भार्यारतिः शुचिर्भृत्यमर्ता आहुकियारतः । नमस्कारेण मन्त्रेण पञ्च यज्ञान् हापयेत् ॥' on which the *mitha* gives the view of some that the namaskāra mantra is 'देवताभ्यः पितृभ्यश्च महायोगिभ्य एव च । नमः स्वधायै स्वाहायै नित्यमेव नमो नमः ॥' मेधा. (on मनु III. 121 सारं त्वत्तस्य सिद्धस्य पत्न्यमन्त्रं बलिं हरेत् ।) remarks यथा शूद्रो नमस्कारमुच्चारयति अनुज्ञातो मन्त्र इति (गौ. X. 66) इति नमस्कारेण प्रत्याम्नातः शूद्रस्य मन्त्र इति नमस्कारोऽनुज्ञातोऽस्य न देवतापदम् । The Viṣṇu Dh. S. 21. 20 says about sapindi-karāṇa śrāddha that it may be performed for śūdras on the 12th day (from death) without mantras 'मन्त्रवर्जं हि शूद्राणां द्वादशोदधि' ।

should not impart religious instruction to him nor ask him to perform *vratas*. Laghuviṣṇu³⁷² (I. 15) contains the dictum that the śūdra is devoid of any saṁskāra. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 262 explains the words of Manu IV. 80 about *vratas* in the case of śūdras as applicable only to those śūdras who are not in attendance upon members of the three higher castes and establishes that śūdras can perform *vratas* (but without *homa* and muttering of *mantras*). Aparārka on the same verse (Manu IV. 80) explains that the śūdra cannot perform *vratas* in person, but only through the medium of a brāhmaṇa. The Śūdra-kamalākara (p. 38) holds that śūdras are entitled to perform *vratas*, *fasts*, *mahādānas* and *prāyaścittas*, but without *homa* and *japa*. Manu X. 127 allows religious śūdras to perform all religious acts which *dvijātis* perform, provided they do not use Vedic *mantras*. On the other hand Śaṅkha (as quoted by Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 13) opines that saṁskāras may be performed for śūdras but without Vedic *mantras*. Yama quoted in Sm. C. (I. p. 14) says the same. Veda-Vyāsa (I. 17) prescribes that ten saṁskāras (viz. *garbhādhāna*, *pumsavana*, *śimantonayana*, *jātakarma*, *nāmakaraṇa*, *niṣkramaṇa*, *anna-prāśana*, *caula*, *karnavedha* and *vivāha*) can be performed in the case of śūdras, but without Vedic *mantras*. Haradatta (on Gautama X. 51) quotes a *grhyakāra* to the effect that even in the case of the śūdra the rites of *niṣeka*, *pumsavana*, *śimantonayana*, *jātakarma*, *nāmakaraṇa*, *annaprāśana* and *caula* are allowed but without Vedic *mantras*. When Manu prescribes (II. 32) that the śūdra should be given a name connected with service, he indicates that the śūdra could perform the ceremony of *nāmakaraṇa*. So when Manu (IV. 80) states that he deserves no-saṁskāra, what he means is that no saṁskāra with Vedic *mantras* was to be performed in his case. Medhātithi on Manu IV. 80 says that the prohibition to give advice and impart instruction in *dharma* applies only when these are done for making one's livelihood, but if a śūdra is a friend of the family of a brāhmaṇa friendly advice or instruction can be given. Vide Śūdrakamalākara p. 47 for several views about the saṁskāras allowed to śūdras.

(4) Liability to higher punishment for certain offences.
If a śūdra committed adultery with a woman of the three

372. शूद्रश्चतुर्थो वर्णस्तु सर्वसंस्कारवर्जितः । उक्तस्तरय तु संस्कारो द्विजेष्वात्मनिवेद-
नम् ॥ लघुविष्णु I. 15.

higher castes, Gaut.³⁷³ (XII. 1-2) prescribed the cutting off of his penis and forfeiture of all his property and if he was guilty of this offence when entrusted with the duty of protecting her, he was to suffer death in addition. Vaṣ. Dh. S. 21. 1. Manu VIII. 366 prescribe death in the case of a śūdra having intercourse with a brāhmaṇa woman whether she was willing or unwilling. On the other hand, if a brāhmaṇa committed rape on a brāhmaṇa woman he was fined a thousand and five hundred if he was guilty of adultery with her (Manu VIII. 378) and if a brāhmaṇa had intercourse with a kṣatriya, vaiśya or śūdra woman, who was not guarded, he was fined five hundred (Manu VIII. 385). Similarly in the case of *Vākpāruṣya* (slander and libel) if a śūdra reviled a brāhmaṇa he received corporal punishment or his tongue was cut off (Manu VIII. 270), but if a kṣatriya or vaiśya did so they were respectively fined 100 or 150 (Manu VIII. 267) and if a brāhmaṇa reviled a śūdra, the brāhmaṇa was fined only 12 (Manu VIII. 268) or nothing (acc. to Gaut. XII. 10). In the case of theft, however, the śūdra was fined much less. Vide above p. 152 (No. 11 among the privileges of brāhmaṇas).

(5) In the matter of the period for impurity on death or birth the śūdra was held to be impure for a month, while a brāhmaṇa had to observe ten days' period only. Vide above p. 153 (No. 15 among the privileges of brāhmaṇas).

(6) A śūdra could not be a judge or propound what dharma was. Manu (VIII. 9) and Yāj. I. 3 lay down that when the king does not himself look into the litigation of people owing to pressure of other business, he should appoint a learned brāhmaṇa as a judge. Manu (VIII. 20) further says that a king may appoint as his judge even a brāhmaṇa who is so by birth only (i. e. who does not perform the peculiar duties of brāhmaṇas), but never a śūdra. Kātyāyana (as quoted

373. आर्यस्यभिगमने लिङ्गोद्धारः स्वरुणं च । गोता चेद्वयोधिकः । गौतम 12. 1-2. In parts of America the penalty for an attempt to commit a rape on a white woman is burning alive, but only if the offender has a black skin. As to Rome vide Westermarck's 'The Origin and Development of moral Ideas' (1912) vol. I. p. 433 "from the beginning of Empire the citizens were divided into privileged classes and commonalty—*utroque ordo* and *plebs*—and whilst a commoner who was guilty of murder was punished with death, a murderer belonging to the privileged classes was generally punished with deportation only."

in ³⁷⁴ the Mit. on Yāj. I. 3) says that when a brāhmaṇa is not available (as a judge) the king may appoint as judge a kṣatriya or a vaiśya who is proficient in dharmasāstra, but he should carefully avoid appointing a śūdra as judge.

(7) A brāhmaṇa was not allowed to receive gifts from a śūdra except under great restrictions. Vide above note 239.

(8) A brāhmaṇa could take ³⁷⁵ food at the houses of members of the three classes who performed the duties prescribed for them by the śāstras (according to Gaut.), but he could not take food from a śūdra except when the śūdra was his own cowherd, or tilled his field or was a hereditary friend of the family, or his own barber or his dāsa. Vide Gaut. XVII. 6 and Manu IV. 253 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 57. 16), Yāj. I. 166, Parāśara IX. 19. Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 16. 22 says ³⁷⁶ 'that food which is brought by an impure śūdra should not be eaten by a brāhmaṇa;' but Āpastamba allows śūdras to be cooks in brāhmaṇa households provided they were supervised by a member of the three higher classes and observed certain hygienic rules about paring nails, the cutting of hair. Manu IV. 211 forbade in general the food of a śūdra to a brāhmaṇa and by IV. 223 he laid down that a learned brāhmaṇa should not take cooked food from a śūdra who did not perform śrāddha and other daily rites (mahāyajñas) but that he may take from such a śūdra uncooked grain for one night, if he cannot get food from anywhere else. Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 1) requires a brāhmaṇa to avoid the food of vṛśalas (śūdras). Gradually rules about taking food from śūdras became stricter. The Śaṅkhaśmṛti (13. 4) remarks that brāhmaṇas fattened on the food given by śūdras are *Pañktidūṣaka*. Parāśara ³⁷⁷ XI. 13 ordains that a brāhmaṇa may take from a śūdra ghee, oil, milk, molasses and food fried in oil or ghee, but should eat it on a river bank and not in the śūdra's house and the Par. M. adds

374. ब्राह्मणो यत्र न स्यात्तु क्षत्रियं तत्र योजयेत् । वैश्यं वा धर्मशास्त्रज्ञं शूद्रं चत्नेन वर्जयेत् ॥ कात्यायन (quoted by मिता० on या. I. 3)

375. मशस्तानां स्वकर्मसु द्विजतीनां ब्राह्मणो युज्यते । ...पशुपालक्षेत्रकर्षककुलसंगत-
कारिवित्तुपरिचारका भोज्यान्नाः । गौतम 17. 1 and 6.

376. अग्रयेतेन तु शूद्रेणोपहृतमभोज्यम् । आप. ध. सू. I. 5. 16. 23; आर्षाधिष्ठिता
वा शूद्राः संस्काराः स्युः । आप. ध. सू. II. 2. 3. 4.

377. घृतं तैलं तथा क्षीरं शूद्रं तैलेन पाचितम् । गत्वा नदीं तदे विप्रो भुञ्जीयाच्छूद्र-
भोजनम् ॥ पराशर XI. 13 and 'एतच्च क्षत्रियादिवर्णत्रयभोजनस्याभ्युत्थानं मार्गश्रान्त्यादौ
पूर्ववर्णासंभवे वेदितव्यम् । आपादि यावता विना प्राणरक्षणं न भवति तावदन्नमभ्युत्थायते न
तु ततोऽधिकम् ।' परा. मा. II. part 1 pp. 411-12.

(II. 1. pp. 411-12) that this permission is meant to apply only when the brāhmaṇa is tired by travelling and no food from a member of another class is available. Haradatta on Gaut. XVII. 6 remarks that a brāhmaṇa could take food from a śūdra who was a cowherd &c. only in the case of very extreme calamities. Aparārka also (p. 244 on Yāj. I. 168) says the same. In the kalivarjya (actions forbidden in the kali age) the old practice of eating the food of cowherds, barber &c. was forbidden.³⁷⁸

(9) The śūdra gradually came to be so much looked down upon that he could not touch a brāhmaṇa, though at one time he could be a cook in a brāhmaṇa household and a brāhmaṇa could eat food from his house. In the Anuśāsanaparva (59.33) it is said³⁷⁹ 'a brāhmaṇa should be served by a śūdra from a distance like blazing fire; while he may be waited upon by a kṣatriya or vaiśya after touching him.' Aparārka (p. 1196) quotes two smṛti texts 'a brāhmaṇa on touching a śūdra or niṣāda becomes pure by ācamana (ceremonial sipping of water); on touching persons lower than these, he becomes pure by bathing, prāṇāyāma and the strength of *tapas*; on seeing a ram, a cock, a crow, a dog, a śūdra and an antyāvasāyin (an antyaja), one should stop the rite that is being performed and on touching them one should take a bath'. On this Aparārka explains that if a man who touched a śūdra cannot bathe then he may resort to sipping water, but if able he must take a bath or that on touching a sat-śūdra one may have recourse to ācamana and on touching an asat-śūdra one must take a bath. We find from the Gṛhyasūtras³⁸⁰ that in Madhuparka offered to a snātaka the feet of the guest (even if he was a brāhmaṇa) were washed by a śūdra male or female. So there could have been no ban against a śūdra touching a brāhmaṇa then. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 3. 6. 9-10) says that two śūdras should wash the feet of a guest, according to some teachers (in the case of a householder who has several dāsas), while Āpastamba

378. 'शूद्रेषु दासगोपालकुलमित्रार्थसीरिणाम् । भोज्याकृता गृहस्थस्य' quoted in स्मृतिचन्द्रिका (I. p. 12), परा. मा. I. part 1 pp. 134-137 and the उद्वाहत्स्व of रघुनन्दन.

379. दूराच्छूद्रेणोपचर्यो ब्राह्मणोऽग्निरिव ज्वलन् । संस्पृश्य परिचर्यस्तु वैश्येन क्षत्रियेण च ॥ अनुशासन 59. 33.

380. e. g. हिरण्यकेशिगृह्य I. 12. 18-20 'अथास्मै पाद्यमिति प्राह । तेनास्य शूद्रः शूद्रा वा पादौ प्रक्षालयति सप्तमये ब्राह्मणस्य दक्षिणमित्रयोः'.

himself says that one śūdra should wash the guest's feet and another should sprinkle him with water.³⁸¹

(10) As the śūdra could not be initiated into Vedic study, the only āśrama out of the four that he was entitled to was that of the householder. In the Anuśāsanaparva (165. 10) we read³⁸² 'I am a śūdra and so I have no right to resort to the four āśramas'. In the Śāntiparva³⁸³ (63. 12-14) it is said, 'in the case of a śūdra who performs service (of the higher classes), who has done his duty, who has raised offspring, who has only a short span of life left or is reduced to the 10th stage (i. e. is above 90 years of age), the fruits of all āśramas are laid down (as obtained by him) except of the fourth.' Medhātithi on Manu VI. 97 explains these words as meaning that the śūdra by serving brāhmaṇas and procreating offspring as a house-holder acquires the merit of all āśramas except *mokṣa* which is the reward of the proper observance of the duties of the fourth āśrama.

(11) The life of a śūdra was esteemed rather low. Yāj. III. 236 and Manu XI. 66 include the killing of a woman, a śūdra, a vaiśya and a kṣatriya among upapātakas; but the prāyaścittas and gifts prescribed for killing these show that the life of the śūdra was not worth much. On killing a kṣatriya, the prāyaścitta prescribed was brahmacarya for six years, gift of 1000 cows and a bull; for killing a vaiśya, brahmacarya for three years and gift of 100 cows and a bull; for killing a śūdra brahmacarya for one year, gift of 10 cows and a bull. Gaut. XXII. 14-16, Manu XI, 126-130, Yāj III. 266-267 say practically the same thing. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 9. 25. 14-I. 9. 26. 1) says that on killing a crow, a chameleon, a peacock, a cakravāka, flamingo, bhāsa, a frog, ichneumon, musk-rat, a dog, a cow and draught ox the prāyaścitta is the same as that for killing a śūdra. Manu (XI. 131) says 'on killing a cat, an ichneumon,

381. तस्य पादौ प्रक्षालयेच्छूद्रमिथुनाविलेके । अन्यतरोऽभिषेचने स्वात् । आप. ध. सू. II. 3. 6. 9-10.

382. शूद्रोहं नाधिकारो मे चातुराश्रम्यसेवने । अनुशासनपर्व 165. 10.

383. शुश्रूषोः कृतकार्यस्य कृतसंतानकर्तृणः । अभ्युदयज्ञातराजस्य शूद्रस्य जगतीपते । अल्पान्तरगवस्यापि दशधर्मगतस्य वा । आश्रमा विहिताः सर्वे वर्जयित्वा निरामिषम् । शान्ति- 63. 12-14; सर्वे आश्रमास्तु न कर्तव्याः किं तर्हि शुश्रूषयापत्योत्पादनेन च सर्वाश्रमफलं लभते द्विजातीन् शुश्रूषमाणो गार्हस्थ्येन सर्वाश्रमफलं लभते परिव्राजकफलं मोक्षं वर्जयित्वा । मेधा- तिथि on मनु, VI. 97.

cāṣa, a frog, a dog, iguana, owl and crow, the *prāyaścitta* is the same as that for killing a *śūdra*.³⁸⁴

If the *śūdra* laboured under certain grave disabilities, he had certain compensating advantages. He could follow almost any profession except the few specially reserved for *brāhmaṇas* and *ksatriyas*. Even as to the latter many *śūdras* became kings and Kauṭ, in his *Arthaśāstra* (IX. 2) speaks of armies of *śūdras* (vide note 266 above). The *śūdra* was free from the round of countless daily rites. He was compelled to undergo no *samskāra* (except marriage), he could indulge in any kind of food and drink wine, he had to undergo no penances for lapses from the rules of the *śāstras*, he had to observe no restrictions of gotra and pravara in marriage. Those western writers who turn up their nose at the position of the *śūdras* in ancient and medieval India conveniently forget what atrocious crimes were perpetrated by their people in the institution of slavery and in their dealings with the Red Indians and other backward coloured races; how nations of Europe out of false pride of race have passed in the 20th century laws prohibiting marriages between the so-called Aryans and non-Aryans and preventing the latter from holding state offices and carrying on several occupations and how discrimination is made against coloured men on railways, in hotels and other places of public resort and how even in India separate third class compartments were reserved on railways for Europeans, for entering which Indians were prosecuted and sentenced in their own country. Vide *Emperor vs Narayan* 25 Bom. L. R. 26 for such a case.

384. Those who are familiar with the cases decided in India in which Indian servants or coolies were kicked by European employers and died as a result and in which the offenders were either acquitted or let off on a small fine (on the ground that the deceased had an enlarged spleen) need not feel surprised at the above statement of affairs in India over two thousand years ago.

CHAPTER IV

UNTOUCHABILITY

Those who have written on the Indian caste system have always been struck by the fact of the existence of certain castes that are treated as untouchables. But it should not be supposed that this is something confined only to India. Even nations that have no caste system at all have often carried out complete segregation of certain people dwelling in their midst, which in essentials is the same as the system of untouchability in India. The Encyclopaedia of social sciences vol. XI. p. 339 says that in the southern States of U. S. A. discrimination against Negroes took the form of 'residential segregation, separation of the races in public conveyances and places of amusement, exclusion of Negroes from public institutions and educational discrimination. Disenfranchisement and social discrimination had their economic counterpart in all branches of industry except agriculture and domestic and personal service,³⁸⁵ occupations to which Negroes had been habituated under the slave regime.' It is also within living memory that Mahatma Gandhi had to lead a movement of *satyāgraha* in South Africa against the discriminating treatment of Indians and even now in Natal and other parts of British Africa there is legislation restricting Indians in the matter of residence and purchases of land.

In the early Vedic literature several of the names of castes that are spoken of in the *smṛtis* as *antyajas* occur. We have *carmamna* (a tanner of hides?) in the *Rgveda* (VIII. 5. 38), the *Cāṇḍāla* and *Paulkasa* occur in the *Vāj. S.*, the *Vapa* or *Vaptā* (barber) even in the *Rg.*, the *Vidalakāra* or *Bidalakāra* (corresponding to the *buruḍa* of the *smṛtis*) occurs in the *Vāj. S.* and the *Tai. Br.*, *Vāsahpalpūli* (washerwoman) corresponding to the *Rajaka* of the *smṛtis* in the *Vāj. S.* But there is no

385. Vide Westermarck's 'The Origin and Development of the moral ideas' vol. I. pp. 370-371 for the treatment of Bushmen in Africa and Australia and of Negroes in America. Vide 'Satyagraha in South Africa' by Mahatma Gandhi translated by Mr. Valji Govindji Desai (published by S. Ganesan, 1928).

indication in these passages whether these, even if they formed castes, were at all untouchables. The utmost that can be said is that as the Paulkasa is assigned to *bībhatsā* (in Vaj. S. 30. 17) and Cāṇḍāla to Vāyu (in the Puruṣamedha), the Paulkasa lived in such a way as to cause disgust and the Cāṇḍāla lived in the wind (i. e. probably in the open or in a cemetery). The only passage of Vedic literature on which reliance can be placed for some definite statement about cāṇḍālas is in the Chāndogya Up.³⁸⁶ V. 10. 7. where while describing the fate of those souls that went to the world of the moon for enjoying the rewards of some of their actions it is stated 'those who did praiseworthy actions here, quickly acquire birth in a good condition, viz. in the condition of a brāhmaṇa, a kṣatriya or vaiśya, while those whose actions were low (reprehensible) quickly acquire birth in a low condition i. e. as a dog, or a boar or a cāṇḍāla.' This occurs in Pañcāgniṣṭyā, the purpose of which is to teach *vairāgya* and disgust with the transmigratory world. This passage does not enjoin anything, it is a bare statement by way of explanation or elucidation. All that can be legitimately inferred from this is that the first three varṇas were commended and that cāṇḍālas were looked upon as the lowest in the social scale. It is to be noticed that the śūdra varṇa does not occur in this passage at all. So probably even in the times of the Chāndogya the cāṇḍāla was looked upon as a śūdra, though lowest among the several śūdra subcastes. The cāṇḍāla is equated with the dog and the boar in this passage, but this leads hardly anywhere. It is no doubt stated in the Śat. Br. XII. 4. 1. 4³⁸⁷ that 'three beasts are unclean in relation to a sacrifice viz. the vicious (filthy) boar, the ram and the dog.' Here it is clear that every boar is not unclean, but probably only that variety that subsists on the village offal. On the other hand the flesh of boars was said to cause great delight to the Pitr̥s when offered in śrāddha (vide Manu III. 270 and Yāj. I. 259). Therefore this Upaniṣad passage does not say anything on the point whether the Cāṇḍāla was in its day untouchable. This passage may be compared with another in which the śūdra is said to be a walking

386. तद्य इह रमणीयचरणा अभ्याशो ह यत्ते रमणीयां योनिमापद्येरन् ब्राह्मणयोनिं वा क्षत्रिययोनिं वा वैश्ययोनिं वा य इह कपूयचरणा अभ्याशो ह यत्ते कपूयां योनिमापद्येरन् श्वयोनिं वा सूकरयोनिं वा चण्डालयोनिं वा । छान्दोग्य V. 10. 7. The Vedāntasūtra III. 1. 8-11 deals with this passage.

387. त्रयो ह त्वाव पञ्चोऽमेध्याः । दुर्वराह एवकः श्वा । तेषां यद्यचिञ्जितेऽग्निहोत्रेऽन्तरेण कश्चित्तत्त्वैरिह तत्र कर्म का तत्र प्रायश्चित्तिरिति । शतपथ XII. 4. 1. 4.

cemetery. If the śūdra was not untouchable in the Vedic literature, and if he was allowed to be a cook for brāhmaṇas and to wash the feet of brāhmaṇa guests in spite of that passage (as stated in the Dharmasūtras quoted above pp. 161-162), there is no reason to suppose that the Chāndogya passage indicates that the cāṇḍāla was untouchable in the remote ages. Another passage is relied upon by orthodox writers to support the theory that untouchability of cāṇḍālas is declared in Vedic writings. In the Br. Up. I. 3 the story is narrated that gods and *asuras* had a strife and the gods thought that they might rise superior to the *asuras* by the Udgītha. In this vidyā occurs the passage³⁸⁸ 'this devatā (Prāṇa) throwing aside the sin that was death to these devatās (vāk etc.) sent it to the ends of these quarters and he put down the sin of these devatās there; therefore one should not go to people (outside the Āryan pale) nor to the ends (of the quarters) thinking 'otherwise I may fall in with *pāpman* i. e. death'. In the first place there are no peoples expressly named here. Śaṅkara explains that by 'end of the quarters' are meant regions where people opposed to Vedic culture dwell. This description can only apply to people like the *mlecchas* and not to cāṇḍālas who are not opposed to Vedic knowledge (but who have no *adhikāra* to learn it). Besides cāṇḍālas might stay outside the village, but they do not stay at the end of the quarters³⁸⁹ (or at the end of the ārya territory). Hence this passage does not help in establishing the theory of untouchability for Vedic times.

Next comes the consideration of the evidence derived from the sūtras and smṛtis. But certain preliminary observations must be made to clarify the position. The theory of the early smṛtis was that there were only four varṇas and there was no fifth varṇa. Vide Manu X. 4 and Anuśāsanaparva 47.18.³⁹⁰ When in modern times the so-called untouchables are referred

388. सा वा एषा देवतैतासां देवतानां पाप्मानं मृत्युमपहत्य यत्रासां दिशामन्तस्तद्रम-
यांचकार । तदासां पाप्मानो विन्यदधात्तस्माच्च जनमियाहान्वमियाजेत् पाप्मानं मृत्युमन्ववा-
यानीति । बृह. उ. I. 3. 10.

389. The *Mlecchas* were known to the Śat. Br. (III. 2. 1. 24 'tasman na brāhmaṇo mlecchet'). Vide Ait. Br. 33. 6 'antān vaḥ. prajābhakṣiṣṭa' quoted above in note 118 for the meaning of 'disām antah'.

390. चतुर्थ एकजातिस्तु शूद्रो नास्ति तु पञ्चमः । मनु 10. 4 ; स्मृताश्च वर्णाश्चत्वारः
पञ्चमो नाधिगम्यते । अनुशासन 47. 18.

to as the *pañcamas*,³⁹¹ that is something against the *smṛti* tradition. Pāṇ. II. 4. 10 and Patañjali³⁹² say that a *Samāhāra*-dvandva compound can be formed from several subdivisions of *sūdras* that are not *niravasita* e. g. we can have the compound 'takṣayaskāram' meaning carpenters and blacksmiths, but not 'cāṇḍāla-mṛtapam', because *cāṇḍālas* and *mṛtapas* are *niravasita* *sūdras* (and so the compound will be 'cāṇḍālamṛtapāḥ'). Therefore it follows that Pāṇ. and Patañjali included *cāṇḍālas* and *mṛtapas* among *sūdras*. When Āṅgīras (note 171 above) includes *kṣātr*, *sūta*, *vaidehika*, *māgadha* and *āyogava* (that are *pratiloma* castes) among *antyāvasāyins* along with *cāṇḍāla* and *śvapaca*, he makes it clear that he regarded *cāṇḍālas* as included among *sūdras*, for Manu X. 41 declares that all *pratiloma* castes are similar to *sūdras* in their *dharma* and because the *Śāntiparva* 297.28³⁹³ expressly says that the *vaidehika* is called *sūdra* by learned *dvijas*. Gradually however, a distinction was made between *sūdras* and castes like *cāṇḍālas*. Fresh castes were then added to the list of untouchables by custom and usage and the spirit of exclusiveness, though there is no warrant of the *śāstras* for such a procedure.

Untouchability did not and does not arise by birth alone. It arises in various ways. In the first place, persons become outcasted and untouchable by being guilty of certain acts that amount to grave sins. For example, Manu IX. 235-239 prescribes that those who are guilty of *brāhmaṇa*-murder, theft of *brāhmaṇa*'s gold or drinkers of spirituous liquors should be excommunicated, no one should dine with them or teach them, or officiate as priests for them, nor should marriage relationship be entered into with them and they should wander over the world excluded from all Vedic *dharma*s. But if they perform the proper *prāyaścitta* they are restored to caste and become touchable. Secondly, persons were treated as untouchables simply through religious hatred and abhorrence because they belonged to a different sect or religion. For example, *Aparārka*

391. N. P. Dutt in 'Origin and growth of caste in India' vol. I. p. 105, (1931) speaks of 'Nīshadas, chandalas and paulkasas as the fifth varṇa'.

392. Vide note 200 above for the quotation from the *Mahābhāṣya*.

393. ब्रह्मणो ह सधर्मोऽयः सर्वेष्वर्थासजाः स्मृताः ॥ मनु X. 41; वैदिकं ब्रह्मसूत्रं हरन्ति द्विजा महाराजं श्रुतोपपन्नाः । शान्तिपर्व 297. 28.

(p. 923) and Sm. C.³⁹⁴ (I. p. 118) quote verses from the Śaṭ-trimśan-mata and Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa that 'on touching Baudddhas, Pāsupatas, Jainas, Lokāyatikas, Kāpilas (Sāṃkhyas) and brāhmanas guilty of doing actions inconsistent with their caste one should enter water with the clothes on and also on touching Śaivas and atheists'. It is worthy of note that Aparārka³⁹⁵ p. 923 quotes a verse of Vṛddha-Yājñavalkya that on touching cāṇḍālas, pukkasas, mlecchas, Bhillas and Pārasikas and persons guilty of mahāpātakas one should bathe with the clothes on. Thirdly, certain persons, though not untouchable ordinarily, became so, if they followed certain occupations, e. g. if a person touches a brāhmaṇa who is *devalaka* (i. e. has been doing worship to an image for money for three years) or who is a priest for the whole village, or a person who sells a soma plant, then he has to bathe with his clothes on.³⁹⁶ Fourthly, persons become untouchable when in certain conditions e. g. a person if he touches even his wife in her monthly period or during the first ten days after delivery or if he touches a person during the period of mourning on the death of some relative or a person who has carried a corpse to the cemetery and has not yet bathed, he then has to take a bath with his clothes on (vide Manu V. 85). Fifthly, certain races such as mlecchas and persons from certain countries and the countries themselves were regarded as impure (vide notes 40, 42, 49). Further the smṛtis say that persons following certain filthy, low and disapproved avocations were untouchable e. g. Saṃvarta³⁹⁷ quoted

394. बद्धविंशन्मतात् । बौद्धान् पाशुपतंश्चैव लोकायतिकनास्तिकान् । विकर्मस्थान् द्विजान् स्पृष्ट्वा सचेलो जलमाविशेत् ॥ अपरार्क p. 923, स्मृतिच. I. p. 118; मिता० on या. III. 30 quotes it as from ब्रह्माण्डपुराण (reading शैवान् for बौद्धान् and शुद्धान् for स्पृष्ट्वा); vide बृद्धहारीत IX. 359, 363, 364 for bath on touching शैव and entering Baudddha or Śaiva temples; स्पृष्ट्वा देवलकं चैव सवासा जलमाविशेत् । quoted by मिता० on या. III. 30 and अपरार्क p. 923; शान्तिपर्व 76. 6 has 'आह्वायका देवलका नाक्षत्रा ग्रामयाजकाः । एते ब्राह्मणचाण्डाला महापथिकपञ्चमाः ।'

395. चण्डालपुङ्गवस्यलेच्छमिष्टपारासिकादिकम् । महापातकिनश्चैव स्पृष्ट्वा स्नायात्सचैलकम् ॥ वृद्धयाज्ञवल्क्य quoted by अपरार्क p. 923.

396. च्यवनः । श्वानं श्वपाकं प्रेतधूमं देवद्वयोपजीविनं ग्रामयाजकं सोमविकारिणं यूपं चितिं चितिकाष्ठं श्वस्पृशं रजस्वलां महापातकिनं श्वं स्पृष्ट्वा सचैलमम्भोवगाहोत्तीर्य-
श्लिषुपस्पृश्य गायत्र्यष्टशतं जपेद् वृत्तं प्राश्य पुनः स्नात्वा विराचमेत् । मिता० on या. III. 30 and अपरार्क p. 922.

397. कैवर्त-युग्म-व्याध-सौमिशान्कुनिकानपि । रजकं च तथा स्पृष्ट्वा स्नात्वैवाशन-
साचरेत् ॥ संवर्त quoted by अपरार्क p. 1196.

by Aparārka p. 1196 says 'on touching a fisherman, a deer-hunter, a hunter, a butcher, a bird-catcher, and a washerman one must first bathe and then take one's meal'. It is to be remarked that such texts do not expressly make a man of those castes untouchable even if he does not pursue the occupation stated, but they have rather the occupation in view. Such occupations were thought impure, as it was believed that if one was to secure the final goal of liberation, one must cultivate purity of mind as well as body, and as great importance came to be attached to cleanliness and the ceremonial purity of the body for spiritual purposes; and emphasis was laid upon not coming in contact with persons carrying on filthy or impure pursuits, but also with animals and even inanimate objects. These restrictions were not inspired by any hardness of heart or any racial or caste pride as is often said, but they were due to psychological or religious views and the requirements of hygiene. Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 16 says 'a person touched by a dog should take a bath with his clothes on'. Vide also Vas. Dh. S. 23. 33, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 69. Vṛddha-Hārīta (chap. 11. 99-102) enumerates certain vegetables and herbs (such as leek) and other articles on touching which one was to bathe. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 4. 9. 5) requires every house-holder to give food after Vaiśvadeva to all including cāṇḍālas, dogs and crows. And this practice is followed even now by those who perform Vaiśvadeva. The ancient Hindus had a horror of uncleanness and they desired to segregate those who followed unclean professions like those of sweepers, workers in hide, tanners, guardians of cemeteries &c. This segregation cannot be said to have been quite unjustifiable. Besides those who are not familiar with ancient or even modern Hindu notions must be warned against being carried away by the horror naturally felt at first sight when certain classes are treated as untouchable. The underlying notions of untouchability are religious and ceremonial purity and impurity. A man's nearest and dearest women relatives such as his own mother and wife or daughter are untouchable to him during their monthly periods. To him the most affectionate friend is untouchable for several days when the latter is in mourning due to death in the latter's family. A person cannot touch his own son (whose thread ceremony has been performed) at the time of taking meals. In this latter case there is no idea of impurity and in most of these cases there is no idea of superiority or inferiority. As many professions and crafts were in ancient times hereditary, gradually the idea arose

that a man who belonged to a caste pursuing certain filthy or abhorred avocations or crafts was by birth untouchable. Medieval and modern usage had no doubt reached the stage that if a man belonged by birth to a caste deemed by custom to be untouchable he remained an untouchable whatever profession or craft he may pursue or even if he pursued no profession. But ancient and medieval writers thought otherwise and there was also great divergence of view as to who were untouchables and to what extent. The only caste that is said by the most ancient Dharma-sūtras to be untouchable by birth is that of cāṇḍālas and the word cāṇḍāla has a technical meaning in these works as stated above (p. 81) under cāṇḍāla. Gaut. (IV. 15 and 23) says that the cāṇḍāla is the offspring of a śūdra from a brāhmaṇa woman and that he is the most reprehensible among the pratilomas. Āp. Dh. S. II. 1. 2. 8-9³⁹⁸ states that on touching a cāṇḍāla one should plunge into water, on talking to him one should converse with a brāhmaṇa (for purification), on seeing him one should look at the lumināries (either the Sun or moon or stars). We have seen above that there were three kinds of cāṇḍālas and they were all so by virtue of the circumstances of their birth. Manu (X. 36, 51) makes only the andhra, meda, cāṇḍāla and śvapaca stay outside the village and makes the antyāvasāyin (X. 39) stay in a cemetery. That leads to the inference that other men even of the lowest castes could stay in the village itself. Hārīta³⁹⁹ quoted by Aparārka (p. 279) states 'if a dvijāti's limb other than the head is touched by a dyer, a shoemaker, a hunter, a fisherman, a washerman, a butcher, a dancer (naṭa), a man of actor caste, oilman, vintner, hangman, village cock or dog, he becomes pure by washing that particular limb and by sipping water (i. e. he need not bathe)'. Here most of the seven antyajās are included and it is expressly said that their touch is not so impure as to require a bath. Āngiras (verse 17) states that a *dvija* when he comes in contact with a washerman, a shoemaker, a dancer (naṭa), a fisherman or a worker in bamboo becomes pure by merely *ācamana* (by

398. यथा चाण्डालोपस्पर्शने संभाषायां दर्शने च दोषस्तत्र प्रायाश्चित्तम् । अवगाहनमपाहुपस्पर्शने संभाषायां ब्राह्मणसंभाषणं दर्शने ज्योतिषां दर्शनम् । आप. ध. सू. II. 1. 2. 8-9.

399. हारितः । रजकश्चर्मकुञ्चैव व्याधजालीपजीविनौ । निर्णेजकः सौनिकश्च नटः शैलूषकस्तथा ॥ चक्री ध्वजी वध्यवांती ग्राम्यकुक्कुटसुकरौ । एभिर्वदङ्गं स्पृष्टं स्याच्छिरोवर्जं द्विजातिषु । तोयेन क्षालनं कृत्वा आचान्ताः प्रयता मताः । अपरार्क p. 279; the same verses are quoted as शास्त्रोक्तियां by स्मृतिच. I p. 119.

sipping water). The Nityācārapaddhati (p. 130) quotes a verse⁴⁰⁰ to the effect that even on coming in contact with cāṇḍālas and pukkasas one need not bathe, if the latter stand near a temple of Viṣṇu and have come for the worship of Viṣṇu. Alberuni in his work on India (tr. by Sachau vol. I. chap. IX) refers to two classes of *antyajas*, the first of which had eight guilds (seven of which were practically the same as the seven in note 170 above, the eighth being the weaver) and a second group of four viz. Hadi, Doma, Chandala and Bhadatau. As to the first group he says that they intermarried except the fuller, shoemaker and weaver. Alberuni seems to have been misinformed as to this and what caste he means by Bhadatau is not clear. Medhātithi⁴⁰¹ in his commentary on Manu X. 13 is positive that the only pratiloma who is untouchable is the cāṇḍāla and no bath is necessary on coming in contact with the other pratilomas (viz. sūta, māgadha, āyogavā, vaidehika and kṣatr). Kullūka also says the same. Therefore it follows that in spite of the smṛti texts (notes 170, 171, 173) including the pratilomas among antyajās along with the cāṇḍālas, such authoritative and comparatively early commentators as Medhātithi (about 900 A. D.) were firmly of opinion that they were not untouchable. Manu⁴⁰² V. 85 and Āṅgīras 152 prescribe a bath for coming in bodily contact with a *divākīrti* (a cāṇḍāla), udakyā (a woman in her monthly period), patita (one outcasted for sin &c.), sūtikā (a woman after delivery), a corpse, one who has touched a corpse. It follows therefore that the only antyaja who was *asprśya* according to Manu was the cāṇḍāla. But gradually the spirit of exclusiveness and ideas of ritual purity were carried to extremes and more and more castes became untouchable. Some very orthodox writers of smṛtis went so far as to hold that on touching even a śūdra a *dvijāti* had to bathe.⁴⁰³ Among the

400. विष्णुबालयसमापस्थान् विष्णुसेवार्थमागतान्। चण्डालपुक्कसान्वापि स्पृष्ट्वा न ज्ञानमाचरेत् ॥ quoted by नित्याचारपद्धति p. 130.

401. चण्डाल एकः प्रतिलोमोऽस्पृश्यः। मेधा० on मनु X. 13.; अतश्चण्डाल एवैकः प्रतिलोमतः स्पर्शादौ निरस्यते। कुल्लुक.

402. दिवाकीर्तिस्तद्व्यां च पतितं सूतिकां तथा। श्वतस्सृष्टिनं चैव स्पृष्ट्वा ज्ञानेन शुध्यति ॥ मनु V. 85 on which मेधा० says दिवाकीर्तिश्चण्डालः..... न नापितस्तस्य स्पृश्यत्वाद्भोज्यास्तत्वाच्च ।'

403. एकं कुक्षुटं काकं श्वशूदान्त्यावसायिनः। द्वैतान् नाचरेत्कर्म स्पृष्टैतान्ज्ञानमाचरेत् ॥ quoted by अपरार्क p. 1196.

earliest occurrences of the word *asprśya* (as meaning untouchables in general) is that in *Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 104*; *Kātyāyana* also uses the word in that sense⁴⁰⁴. It will have been seen from the quotations above that *cāṇḍālas*, *mlecchas* and *Pārasikas* are placed on the same level as regards being *asprśya*. *Atri*⁴⁰⁵ (267-269) says 'if a *dvija* comes in contact with a *cāṇḍāla*, *patita*, *mleccha*, a vessel containing intoxicating drink, a woman in her monthly course, he should not take his meals (without first bathing) and if he comes in contact with these while taking his meal, he should stop, throw away the food and bathe'. Vide *Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 76* about talking with *mlecchas* and *cāṇḍālas*. But so far as *mlecchas* are concerned these restrictions of untouchability have been given up long ago at least in public. Similarly the washerman, the worker in bamboo, the fisherman, the *naṭa*, among the seven well-known *antyajas*, are no longer untouchable in several provinces (though not in all) and were not so even in the times of *Medhātithi* and *Kullūka*.

Once the spirit of exclusiveness and exaggerated notions of ceremonial purity got the upper hand they were carried to extremes. It does not appear from the ancient *smṛtis* that the shadow of even the *cāṇḍāla* was deemed to be polluting. *Manu V. 133* (which is nearly the same as *Viṣṇu Dh. S. 23. 52*) declares 'flies, spray from a reservoir, the shadow (of a man), the cow, the horse, the sun's rays, dust, the earth, the wind and fire should be regarded as pure.' *Yāj. I. 193* is a similar verse (*Mārk. Purāṇa 35. 21* is almost the same). *Manu IV. 130* prescribes that one should not knowingly cross the shadow of the image of a deity, of one's *guru*, of the king, of a *snātaka*, of one's teacher, of a brown cow or of a man who has been initiated for a Vedic sacrifice. Here no reference is made to the shadow of a *cāṇḍāla*. *Medhātithi* on *Manu V. 133* expressly says that 'shadow' means 'shadow of a *cāṇḍāla* and the like'. *Kullūka*, however, adds on *Manu IV. 130* that on account of the word 'ca' in that verse the shadow of *cāṇḍālas* was included in the injunction of that verse. Therefore it is legitimate to infer that *Manu* and *Yāj.* did not prescribe that even the shadow of

404. Vide *कात्यायनस्मृतिसारोद्धार* (ed. by me) verses 433, 783 that are quoted by the *मिता.* on *या.* II. 99 and by *अपराक्ष* p. 813.

405. चाण्डालं पतितं म्लेच्छं मद्यभाण्डं रजस्वलाय । द्विजः स्पृष्ट्वा न शुभीत शुभानो यद्धि संस्पृशेत् । अतः परं न शुभीत त्यक्त्वा च स्नानमाचरेत् । अत्रि (आनन्दाश्रम ed.) verses 267-269.

a cāṇḍāla was impure and caused pollution. Not only so, Aparārka⁴⁰⁶ quotes a verse 'the shadow of a cāṇḍāla or patita, if it falls on a man, is not impure'. But Aparārka himself⁴⁰⁷ adds on this verse the comment that this favourable rule about the shadow of a cāṇḍāla or patita is applicable only if he is at a greater distance from a man than the length of a cow's tail. Bāṇa in his Kādambārī (para 8) describes how the cāṇḍāla girl entered the royal assembly-hall though she was untouchable and stood at some distance from the king. It appears that there was no difficulty about her entering the hall of audience or polluting the assembly by her shadow. Gradually some smṛtis prescribed a bath for a brāhmaṇa coming under the shadow of a cāṇḍāla. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 30 quotes a verse of Vyāghrapāda that if a cāṇḍāla or patita comes nearer to a person than the length of a cow's tail, then the latter must take a bath and another verse of Bṛhaspati to the effect 'a patita, a woman in her monthly period, a woman freshly delivered and a cāṇḍāla should be kept respectively at a distance of one yuga, two, three and four'. As yuga is four cubits, this means that a cāṇḍāla cannot approach within 16 cubits of a caste Hindu.⁴⁰⁸

As regards public roads Yāj. I. 194 says that they become pure by the rays of the sun and the moon and by the wind even when they are trodden by cāṇḍālas. In Yāj. I. 197 it is stated that the mud and water on public roads and on houses built of baked bricks, though touched by cāṇḍālas, dogs and crows, are rendered pure by the mere blowing of the wind over them.⁴⁰⁹

406. चण्डालपतितच्छाया स्पर्शो दुष्टा तु नो भवेत् । भस्म क्षौद्रं सुवर्णं च सदर्भाः कुतपास्तिलाः ॥ quoted by अपरार्क p. 275.

407. पतितचाण्डालयोगोऽपुच्छपरिमितदेशाद्विप्रकृष्टदेशस्थयोऽष्टायास्तुग्रहोऽयम् । अपरार्क p. 275.

408. यस्तु छायां श्वपाकस्य ब्राह्मणो ह्यधिरोहति । तत्र स्नानं प्रकुर्वति घृतं प्राश्य विशुध्यति ॥ अत्रि 288-289, अङ्गिरस् quoted by the मिता on या III. 30, अपरार्क p. 923; अपरार्क p. 1195 ascribes a similar verse to Śātaṭapa. औशनसस्मृति (ed. Jiv. chap. IX part 1 p. 552) also says the same. युगं च द्वियुगं चैव त्रियुगं च चतुर्युगम् । चण्डालसूतिकोदक्यापतितानामथः क्रमात् ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by मिता on या. III. 30; सूतिकापतितोदक्याश्चण्डालश्च चतुर्थकः । यथाक्रमं परिहरेदेकाद्वित्रिचतुर्थकम् ॥ व्यास quoted by स्मृतिच. part I, p. 17. क्षीरस्वामी on 'युगं युगं कृताद्विषु' in the अमरकोश remarks 'हस्तचतुष्कं च यथा विचरेद्युगमात्रदृक्'.

409. रथ्याकर्मतोयानि सुष्ठान्यन्यश्ववायसैः । माकतेनैव शुष्यन्ति पक्कोष्ठीकचितानि च ॥ या I. 197; अङ्गिरस् (verse 144) is almost the same.

These rules show that the smṛtis followed a reasonable rule about the public roads and do not countenance the restrictions maintained in some parts of South India, particularly in Malabar, about the use of public roads by the untouchables viz. that an untouchable must not approach within a certain distance of a high caste Hindu, must leave the road to allow him passage or must shout to give warning of his presence in order to avoid pollution to the caste Hindu. Vide Wilson's 'Indian Castes' vol. II p. 74 (footnote) for details of the distance. In South India also there are various grades of distances within which members of the several lowest castes cannot approach high caste Hindus.

Certain provisions were made in the smṛtis by way of exceptions to the general rules about the untouchability of certain castes. Atri⁴¹⁰ (verse 249) says 'there is no taint of untouchability when a person is touched by an untouchable in a temple, religious processions and marriages, in sacrifices, and in all festivals'. Sātātapa quoted in the Sm. C. declares that there is no doṣa (lapse) in touching (untouchables) in a village (i. e. on the public road), or in a religious procession or in an affray and the like, and also when the whole village is involved in a calamity.⁴¹¹ Bṛhaspati also remarks that there is no fault (and so no prāyaścitta) if one comes in contact (with untouchables) at a sacred place, in marriage processions and religious processions, in battle, when the country is invaded, or when the town or village is on fire. The Sm. C. adds that these verses were variously interpreted; some saying that they apply only where one does not know that the man who has touched him is an untouchable, while others hold that they apply to the touch of impure persons who are not ucchiṣṭa (i. e. risen from meals without washing their hands &c). The Smṛtyarthasāra⁴¹²

410. देवयात्राविवाहेषु यज्ञप्रकरणेषु च । उत्सवेषु च सर्वेषु स्पृष्टास्पृष्टिर्न विद्यते ॥ अत्रि 249. In the स्मृतिच. I. pp. 121-122 this is quoted as from षड्विंशन्मत (v. l. यज्ञेषु प्रकृतेषु च and स्पृष्टास्पृष्टिर्न). The first word must be taken to be formed of three separate members as the quotation from the Smṛtyarthasāra will show.

411. ग्रामे तु यत्र संस्पृष्टियात्रायां कलहादिषु । ग्रामसन्दूषणे चैव स्पृष्टिदोषो न विद्यते । शातातप quoted by स्मृतिच. I. p. 119.

412. संग्रामे हृष्टमार्गे च यात्रादेवगृहेषु च । उत्सवकृततीर्थेषु विष्णवे ग्रामदेशयोः ॥ महाजलसमीपेषु महाजनवरेषु च । अग्न्युत्पाते महापर्वतु स्पृष्टास्पृष्टिर्न दुष्यति ॥ प्राप्य-कारिन्द्रियं स्पृष्टमस्पृष्टि त्वितरेन्द्रियम् । तयोश्च विषयं प्राहुः स्पृष्टास्पृष्टचभिधानतः ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 79.

(p. 79) summarises the places where no blame is incurred on the ground of mixing with untouchables viz. in battle, on public roads leading to a market, in religious processions, in temples, in festivals, in sacrifices, at sacred places, in calamities or invasions of the country or village, on the banks of large sheets of water, in the presence of great persons, when there is a sudden fire or other great calamity. It is somewhat remarkable that the *Smṛtyarthasāra* speaks of untouchables entering temples. The *Par. M.* (vol. II part I p. 115) says that there is no *doṣa* when *cāṇḍālas* take water from a large tank (used by higher castes), but as regards small reservoirs the same rules apply to them that apply to the purification of wells touched by untouchables.⁴¹³ Vide *Vṛddha-Hārta* IX. 405-406 for the purification of a well.

The *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* (V. 104)⁴¹⁴ prescribed that if an untouchable deliberately touched a man of the three higher castes he should be punished with beating, while *Yāj. II. 234* prescribes that if a *cāṇḍāla* (deliberately) touches any one of the higher castes the *cāṇḍāla* should be fined one hundred *paṇas*.

Elaborate rules are laid down about the penance for drinking from the wells or vessels of untouchables, for partaking of their food (either cooked or uncooked), for staying with them and for having sexual intercourse with untouchable women. These matters will be briefly dealt with under *prāyaścitta*.

The so-called untouchables were not entirely excluded from worship. When it is said (as in *Yāj. I. 93* or *Gaut. IV. 20*)⁴¹⁵ that the *cāṇḍāla* is outside all dharma, the meaning is that he is outside such Vedicrites as *upanayana*, not that he cannot worship the Hindu deities nor that he is not bound by the moral code. He could worship images of the *avatāras* of *Viṣṇu* (vide note 364 above). The *Nirṇayasindhu* quotes a passage of the *Devīpurāṇa* that expressly authorizes *antyajas* to establish a temple of *Bhairava*. The *Bhāgavatapurāṇa*⁴¹⁶ X. 70. 43 says that ' even the

413. महत्सु तु तदाकादिषु चाण्डालादिमन्त्रधेयि नास्ति कश्चिदोषः । अल्पेषु तु कूपन्यायः । तदाह विष्णुः । जलाशयेष्वथाल्पेषु स्थावरेषु महीतले । कूपवत्काथिता शुद्धिमहत्सु तु न दूषणम् ॥ परा. मा. vol. II. part I p. 115.

414. कामकारेणासृश्यञ्चैवर्णिकं स्पृशन्न वध्यः । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र V. 104.

415. प्रतिलोमास्तु धर्महीनाः । गौतम IV. 20.

416. अवणात्कीर्तनाद् ध्यानात्पुनन्तेवसायिनः । तव ब्रह्ममयस्येश किमुतेक्षा-
मिमर्शिनः ॥ भागवत X. 70. 43 ; अत्राधिकारिण उक्तीः कृत्यकल्पतरो देवीपुराणे ।
चतुर्वर्णैस्तथा विष्णुः प्रतिष्ठाप्यः सुखार्थिभिः । भैरवोपि चतुर्वर्णैरन्त्यजानां तथा मतः ।
निर्णयसिन्धु III (under देवप्रतिष्ठा).

antyāvāsāyins are purified by listening to the praises or names of Hari, by repeating the names of Hari and by contemplation on Him, much more therefore will those (be purified) who can see or touch your images'. This however shows that to the author of the Bhāgavata it never occurred that an untouchable could see or touch the image of Viṣṇu enshrined in a temple of caste Hindus. In south India among the famous Vaiṣṇava saints called Ālvārs, Tiruppāṇa Ālvār was a member of the depressed classes and Nammālvār was a Veḷḷāla. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 262 remarks that the pratiloma castes (which include cāṇḍāla) have the right to perform vratas.⁴¹⁷

In modern times the eradication of the system of untouchability is engaging the minds of great leaders like Mahatma Gandhi whose fast for 21 days for effecting a change of heart among caste Hindus is famous throughout the world. The principal matters of concern to the so-called untouchables or depressed classes are facility for education in schools, removal of restrictions about places of public resort such as public wells, roads, restaurants and eating houses and entry in public temples. A good deal has been done by a few zealous workers from among the higher castes in these respects. The Christian missionaries have been doing good work among the untouchables, but their efforts are mainly devoted to direct or indirect proselytization. The conscience of the educated among the higher castes has been roused. But the total removal of untouchability is yet a matter of the distant future. The greatest draw-back is illiteracy among the masses of India. Hardly twelve per cent of the population are literate. The diffusion of literacy and the spread of the idea of the equality of all men before the law and in public are the only sure solvents of the evils associated with untouchability which have existed for ages. Popular Governments in the provinces are doing what they with their limited resources can do to ameliorate the condition of the untouchables. The Government of India Act (of 1935) has given special representation to the Scheduled Castes (the name given to the depressed classes or untouchables) in the Provincial and Federal Legislatures of India. The Government of India Scheduled Castes Order of 1936

417. अतः स्त्रीशूद्रयोः प्रतिलोमजानां च त्रैवर्णिकवद् व्रतधिकार इति सिद्धम् । यत्तु गौतमवचनं प्रतिलोमा धर्महीना इति तदुपनयनाद्विशिष्टधर्माभिप्रायम् । मितः on या. III. 262.

sets out the names of the numerous scheduled castes in the several provinces of British India. The Provincial Governments have issued circulars to enforce the rule that no discrimination be made against the scheduled castes in places of public resort and have tackled to some extent the question of the entry of untouchables in temples by passing such acts as the Bombay Act XI of 1938 viz. Bombay Harijan Temple Worship (Removal of disabilities Act) and the Madras Temple Entry Authorisation and Indemnity Act of 1939. Much will depend upon the untouchables themselves. As among the caste Hindus, the untouchables also have *inter se* numerous divisions and subdivisions each of which regards itself as superior to several others of them and will not condescend to mix with them in the public or dine with them. They must also throw up from among themselves selfless and capable leaders. This is a vast problem and the appalling evils which have been growing for ages cannot be wholly removed in a day. The leaders of the so-called untouchables also should not make exaggerated claims. For the present they should rest content with equality in public places, public services and before the law and at the most entry into public temples. But if they indulge in the tall talk of destroying the caste system at one stroke and requiring that all caste Hindus should dine with them and inter-marry with them, they may find that at least two hundred millions of caste Hindus will be dead opposed to them, and the cause of the removal of the evils of untouchability is bound to suffer a set-back. Besides it should not be forgotten that the amelioration of the condition of untouchables is bound up with the problem of the poverty of the entire rural population of India. It should not be supposed that all the untouchables are the poorest of the poor. I know from personal knowledge that many among certain classes of untouchables like the Mahars and Chambhars of the Deccan are economically better off than the ordinary cultivators in many villages. The *mahars* are hereditary village servants in the Deccan and they recover from every householder bread every day as part of their remuneration or a certain measure of corn from the threshing floor. Vide Grant Duff's 'History of the Marathas' (ed. of 1863 vol. I p. 23) for the *balutedars* (village servants) among whom the *mahar* occupies an important place and Hereditary Offices Act (Bombay Act III of 1874, section 18) for Legislative recognition of their ancient rights. The population of untouchables in India has been estimated at various figures from three

crores to six crores. The Simon Commission Report (1930) vol. I. p. 40 estimated that there were about 43 millions of untouchables in the whole of India, the criterion adopted being whether pollution by touch or approach within a certain distance is caused. The ratio of untouchables to the total population of India or to the Hindu population varies greatly in different parts of India. The total Harijan (the name given to untouchables by Mahatma Gandhi) population is 14 per cent of the whole population of India. In the Bombay Presidency the ratio of Harijans to Hindus is only about eleven per cent being the lowest of all provinces and States in India, while in Bengal the ratio is about 32 per cent which is the highest in India except in Assam.⁴¹⁸ The High Courts in India have held that the untouchables are included among *sūdras* for purposes of marriage. Vide *Sohan Singh vs. Kabla Singh* 10 Lahore 372, *Muthusami vs. Masilamani* 33 Mad. 342.⁴¹⁹

418. Vide Census of India (1931), vol. I part 1, p. 494.

419. Several books and papers have been recently published on the question of untouchables in India. Vide "The Psychology of a suppressed people" (1937) by Rev. J. C. Heinrich; 'Untouchable Classes of Mahārāshtra' by M. G. Bhagat.

CHAPTER V

SLAVERY

Slavery has existed as a constant element in the social and economical life of all nations of antiquity such as Babylon, Egypt, Greece, Rome and also of many nations of Europe.⁴²⁰ It was however left to such Christian nations of the West as England and the United States of America to carry on the institution of slavery in the most horrible manner possible never dreamt of by any nation of antiquity, viz. by sending out kidnapping expeditions to Africa to collect slaves, to huddle them in ships in such unspeakably filthy conditions that half of them died on the voyage, to sell them to plantation owners and others like chattel. Westermarck in his 'Origin and Development of the moral ideas' vol. I (1912) p. 711 was constrained to observe 'This system of slavery, which at least in the British colonies and slave states surpassed in cruelty the slavery of any pagan country ancient and modern, was not only recognised by Christian Governments but was supported by the large bulk of the clergy, Catholic and Protestant alike.' Slavery was abolished in the British Dominions only in 1833 and in British India by Act V of 1843.

It has been seen above (pp. 26-27) that the word 'dāsa' in the Rg. generally stands for the opponents of the āryas. It is possible that when the dāsas were vanquished in battle and taken prisoners they were treated as slaves. In the Rgveda, however, there are not many passages where the word 'dāsa' can be said to have been used in the sense of slave. In Rg VIII. 56. 3⁴²¹ we

420. Vide Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences, vol. XIV, p. 74 'To the ancient mind slavery was a fixed and accepted element of life and no moral problem was involved. That slavery already was established as a recognized institution in the Sumerian culture of the Babylonian area in the 4th millenium B. C. may be confidently assumed from the fragments of Sumerian legislation upon slaves which date from the first half of the 3rd millenium'.

421. शतं मे गर्दभानां शतमूर्णवतीनाम् । शतं दासाँ अति स्रजः ॥ ऋ. VIII. 56. 3; यो मे हिरण्यसन्तुषो दश राज्ञो अमहत् । अधस्यदा इज्यैद्यस्य कुह्यश्चर्मणा अभितो जनाः ॥ ऋ. VIII. 5. 38; अद्वान्मे पौरकुत्स्यः पञ्चाशतं त्रसदस्सुर्वधूनाम् । ऋ. VIII. 19. 36.

read 'thou madest a gift to me of one hundred donkeys, of one hundred fleece-bearing ewes and one hundred dāsas'. It appears that here dāsa means slaves or serfs. In Rg VIII. 5.38 the sage praises his patron Caidya Kaśu 'the common people sit down at the feet of Caidya Kaśu like men crowding round tanners of hides, (Caidya) who honoured me by giving me ten noblemen that were like gold in appearance'. Here probably there is an allusion to the gift of ten captured nobles made to the sage by Caidya Kaśu, the victor. A sage declares in Rg. VIII. 19. 36 'Trasadasyu, son of Purukutsa, gave me fifty young women'. This probably refers to the gift of female slaves (dāsīs). The Tai. S. VII. 5. 10. 1 says 'dāsīs (girl slaves) place on their heads jars full of water and singing this *madhu* and beating their feet against the ground dance round the *mārjālīya*' &c.⁴²² The Tai. S. II. 2. 6. 3. refers to the gift of a horse or a male (slave). 'He obtains a portion of himself who accepts (in gift) a being with two rows of teeth, (such as) a horse or a human male; on accepting an animal with two rows of teeth one should offer to Vaiśvānara a mess cooked on twelve potsherds'⁴²³. The Ait. Br. 39.8 mentions large gifts such as 10,000 girls (dāśī) and 10,000 elephants made by a king to his *purohita* performing coronation. When the angel of Death tries to dissuade Naciketas from his curiosity to know the destiny of a person after death, he tempts the inquirer (Kāṭha Up. I. 1. 25) 'Here are such handsome women with chariots and musical instruments as cannot be secured (ordinarily) by men; make them, when gifted by me, serve you; do not ask me what happens after death'. The women referred to were probably meant to be serving (or slave) girls who attended on a man as maids and who could dance and sing. In the Br. Up. IV. 4. 23 Janaka after receiving instruction in Brahmanvidyā from Yājñavalkya exclaims 'I make a gift to your honour of the Videhas together with myself for being your slave'. We read in the Chān. Up. 'In this world they speak of cows and horses, elephants and gold, wives and slaves, fields and houses as *mahimā* (greatness).'

422. उदकुम्भानधिनिधाय दास्यो मार्जालीयं परिद्वत्यन्ति पदो निघ्नतीरिदं मधु गायन्त्यो मधु वै देवानां परममन्नाद्यम् । तै. सं. VII. 5. 10. 1.

423. आत्मनो वा एष मात्रामाप्नोति यो उभयादत्यतिशृङ्गात्यश्वं वा पुरुषं वा वैश्वानरं द्वादशकपालं निर्वपेदुभयादत्यतिशृङ्गा । तै. सं. II. 2. 6. 3; सोऽहं भगवते विदेहान् ददामि मां चापि सह दास्याय । बृह. उ. IV. 4. 23; गो अश्वमिह महिमेत्याचक्षते हस्तिहिरण्यं दासभार्यं क्षेत्राण्यायतनानीति । छा. उ. VII. 24. 2.

Vide also Chān. Up. V. 13. 2 and Br. Up. VI. 2. 7 for references to dāsīs. These passages show that in the Vedic period men and women had become the subjects of gifts and so were in the condition of slaves.

Though Manu ordained (I. 91, VIII. 413, 414) that the principal duty of the śūdra was to wait upon the three higher castes or that the śūdra was created by the Creator for the service of brāhmanas, the śūdra who thus served a *dvijāti* as a duty was not his slave. Jaimini (VI. 7. 6)⁴²⁴ makes this perfectly clear by saying that when a man makes a gift in the Viśvajit sacrifice of everything belonging to himself he cannot make a gift of the śūdra who waits upon him as his duty. Śābara in his bhāṣya adds 'the śūdra may not desire to serve the man to whom the sacrificer gives his all and the latter has no power over him if he is unwilling.'

We have seen how the Gṛhya Sūtras speak of *dāsas* being employed to wash the feet of honoured guests. It appears that the ideal placed before the masters was to treat the slave humanely. Āp. Dh. S. II. 4. 9. 11⁴²⁵ says that one may indeed stint oneself, one's wife or son (as to food) if guests come, but never a dāsa who does one's menial work (or a dāsa and hired servants). In the Anuśāsana-parva⁴²⁶ it is stated 'one should not sell a human being who is a stranger; how much more one's own children'. In the Mahābhārata gifts of dāsas and dāsīs are very frequently mentioned. In Sabhāparva 52. 45, Vanaparva 233. 43 and Virāṭa 18. 21 gifts of 30 dāsīs to each of 88000 *snātaka* brāhmanas are spoken of. In Vanaparva 185. 34 Vainya is said to have given a thousand handsome dāsīs with ornaments on to Atri. Vide Dronaparva 57. 5-9. Manu (VIII. 299-300) places a slave on the same level as one's son in the matter of corporal punishment 'the wife, the son, the slave, a menial servant, one's full brother—these when guilty of wrong may be beaten with a rope

424. शूद्रश्च धर्मशास्त्रत्वात् । जै. VI. 7. 6; 'शूद्रश्च न देय इत्यान्वादेशः । कुतः । धर्मशास्त्रत्वात् । धर्मशासनोपनतत्वात्तरस्य । एवमसौ तस्मै त्रैवर्णिकायोपनत इमं शुश्रूषमाणो धर्मेण संभन्तस्य इति । सौम्यस्मै दीयमानो नेच्छेदपि । न चानिच्छतस्तस्य स प्रभवति ।' शबर.

425. काममात्मानं भार्यां पुत्रं वीपरुन्ध्याच्च त्वेव दत्तिकर्मकरम् । आप. ध. सू. II. 4. 9. 11.

426. अन्योप्यथ न विक्रेयो मनुष्यः किं पुनः प्रजाः । अधर्ममूलैर्हि धनैस्तेन धर्मोऽथ कश्चन ॥ अनुशासनपर्व 45. 23.

or a thin piece of split bamboo, but only on the back and never on the head and if a person beat them otherwise he would be punished as a thief.'

Slavery was probably not much ⁴²⁷ in evidence in India in the 4th century B. C. or the treatment of slaves in India was so good that a foreign observer like Megasthenes accustomed to the treatment of slaves in Greece thought that there was no slavery. Megasthenes (MacCrindle, p. 71) states that none of the Indians employs slaves (vide Strabo XV. 1. 54). That slavery existed then admits of no doubt. The Emperor Asoka when proclaiming his Law of Piety enjoins in his 9th Rock Edict that the Law of Piety consists (among other things) in the kind (or proper) treatment of slaves (*dāsas*) and hired servants. In the *Arthasāstra* (III. 13) Kauṭilya ⁴²⁸ gives very important provisions about slaves. He says that the *mlecchas* are not punishable if they sell or pledge their children, but an *ārya* cannot be reduced to slavery. He then prescribes that if a relative sells or pledges a *śūdra* (who is not born as a slave) or a *vaiśya* or *kṣatriya* or a *brāhmaṇa* (all being minors), he should be respectively fined 12, 24, 36 and 48 *paṇas* and that if a stranger sells or pledges the above then the vendor, the vendee and the abettors will be liable to the first, middle and highest amercements and whipping respectively (i. e. first amercement for sale of a *śūdra* by a stranger and whipping for the sale of a *brāhmaṇa*). But he allows the pledge of even an *ārya* in family distress. He refers to several kinds of slaves viz. *dhvajāhṛta* (captured in battle), *ātma विक्रयिन* (who sells himself), *udaradāsa* (or *garbhadāsa*, one who is born to a *dāsi* from a slave) or those so made for a debt (*āhitika*), or for a fine or court's decree (*daṇḍapranīta*). He then prescribes how they are set free from slavery. One who sells himself or is pledged or is born a slave becomes a free man by paying off respectively the amount for which he was purchased or pledged or what would be a proper price. One who is made a slave for a fine may pay off the fine by doing work. One captured in war may become free by paying according to the time he has been in bondage and the work he did or by paying half of it. The child of one who sells himself

427. Vide Rhys Davids in 'Buddhist India' (1903) p. 263.

428. स्वेच्छानामदोषः प्रजां विक्रेतुमाधातुं वा । न त्वेवार्थस्य दासभावः । कौटिल्य
III. 13.

remains an ārya (free man). He prescribes that if a master makes a pledged slave carry a corpse or sweep ordure, urine or leavings of food, or keeps him naked, beats him or abuses him or violates the chastity of a female slave, he forfeits the price paid by him. He prescribes the first amercement for a master having intercourse with a pledged slave girl against her will and middle amercement for a stranger doing so.

Manu (VIII. 415) speaks of seven kinds of dāsas, viz. one captured in battle, one who becomes so for food (i. e. in scarcity or in a famine), one born in the house (i. e. of a female slave), one bought, one given (by his parents or relatives), one inherited (as part of the patrimony), one who becomes so for paying off a fine or judicial decree. He states the general rule⁴²⁹ that the wife, the son and the slave have no wealth and whatever they earn belongs to him whose wife, son or slave they are. Manu prescribes a fine of 600 paṇas for a brāhmaṇa making a member of the *dvijāti* castes after his upanayana a slave against his will.

Nārada (abhyupetyāśusrūṣa) and Kātyāyana among the smṛtikāras contain the most elaborate treatment on slavery. Nārada first says that a śusrūṣaka (one who serves another) is of five kinds viz. a Vedic student, an antevāsin (an apprentice who is learning a craft), adhikarmakṛt (a supervisor over workmen), bhṛtaka (hired servant) and dāsa. The first four are called *karmakara*. They can be called upon to do only work that is pure, while a dāsa may have to do impure work⁴³⁰ such as cleaning the entrances to the house, filthy pits (for leavings of food), the road, dunghill heaps, touching (or scratching) private parts, taking up and throwing away ordure and urine (verses 6-7), doing bodily service to the master if he so desires. Nārada mentions 15 kinds of slaves viz. one born in the house, one bought, one acquired (by gift or other means),

429. भार्या पुत्रश्च दासश्च त्रय एवाधनाः स्मृताः । यत्ते समधिगच्छन्ति यस्त ते तस्य तद्वनम् ॥ मनु VIII. 416. This is the same as उद्योगपर्व 33. 64 where the first half is त्रय एवाधना राजन् भार्या दासस्तथा सुतः, compare नारद (अभ्युपेत्याशुश्रूषा) verse 41.

430. गृहद्वाराद्युचिस्थानरथ्यावस्करशोधनम् । गृह्याङ्गस्पर्शनोच्छिष्टविष्णूत्रग्रहणो-
ज्जनम् ॥ इच्छतः स्वामिनश्चाद्वैरुपस्थानमथान्ततः । अशुभं कर्म विज्ञेयं शुभमन्यदत-
परम् ॥ नारद (अमु. 6-7).

one inherited, one saved in a time of famine, one pledged by the master, one discharged from a large debt, one captured in a battle, one vanquished in a bet, one who accepts slavery by saying 'I am yours', an apostate from the order of asceticism, one who stipulates to be a slave (for a certain time), one who is a slave for food (as long as food is given to him), one who is tempted to become a slave out of love for a female slave, and one who sells himself. Nārada says that the first four of these are not freed from slavery except by the favour of the master (v. 29), while one who sells himself is the worst kind of slave and he also does not become free from slavery (v. 37). Nārada (v. 30) and Yāj. (II. 182) state a rule applicable to all slaves, viz. that when a slave saves a master from imminent danger to the latter's life the slave becomes a free man and (Nārada adds) that he gets a share in the inheritance as a son. One who is an apostate from the order of ascetics is a slave of the king till the former's death (Yāj. II. 183). One saved in a famine becomes free by giving a pair of cows, one pledged⁴³¹ if the master who pledged him repays the debt, the slave in lieu of discharge of debt by paying off the debt with interest, one who accepted slavery or who was captured in battle or became so under a bet is freed by giving a substitute who is equal to him in work, one for a stipulated period by the lapse of the period, one who is a *bhakta-dāsa* becomes free by the master ceasing to give food, one who is 'vaḍavāhṛta' (tempted by a female slave) by abandoning his intercourse with her (Nārada vv. 31-34, 36). Yāj. (II. 182) and Nārada (v. 38) say that one who was made a slave by force or was carried away by raiders and sold should be set free by the king. Yāj. (II. 183) and Nārada (v. 39) prescribe that a man can be a slave to a master only in the proper order of varṇas⁴³² i. e. the three varṇas next to a brāhmaṇa may be slaves to a brāhmaṇa, a vaiśya or a śūdra may be a slave to a kṣatriya but a kṣatriya cannot be the slave of a vaiśya or a śūdra, nor a vaiśya of a śūdra. There is one exception viz. an apostate from asceticism may be the slave of a vaiśya or a śūdra

431. A slave who is pledged becomes the slave of two till the pledge is redeemed.

432. स्वतन्त्रस्यात्मनो दानाद् दासत्वं दासवद्भूयः । त्रिषु वर्णेषु विज्ञेयं दास्यं विप्रस्य न कच्चित् ॥ वर्णानामाहुल्येन दास्यं न प्रतिलोमतः । कात्यायन quoted by अपराक p. 788; compare नारद (अश्व. 39).

king. Kātyāyana emphasizes that a brāhmaṇa⁴³³ cannot be made a slave even to a brāhmaṇa, but if he himself chooses, he may do pure work for a brāhmaṇa endowed with character and Vedic learning, but no impure work. Kātyāyana (v. 721) says that when a brāhmaṇa becomes an apostate from the order of asceticism he should be banished from the kingdom and the kṣatriya or vaiśya apostate may become a slave to the king. Dakṣa (VII. 33) quoted by Aparārka (p. 787) adds that the apostate's head should be branded with the mark of dog's foot.

Kauṭilya⁴³⁴ and Kātyāyana (v. 723) both declare that if a master has sexual intercourse with a female slave and she is delivered of a child, both the slave and the child should be given freedom by the master.

Kauṭilya declared that the heirs to the wealth of a slave are his relatives and if none of them exist then the master, while Kātyāyana⁴³⁵ says that the only wealth that the slave can call his own is the price he received for selling himself or what the master gave as a gift through favour.

Nārada (vv. 42-43) describes the ceremony of the manumission of a slave "when a master being pleased with a slave desires to make him a free man, he should take, from the slave's shoulder, a jar full of water and break it, he should sprinkle water mixed with whole grains of rice and flowers on the slave's head and thrice uttering the words 'you are no longer a slave' he should dismiss him with the (slave's) face to the east. "

The Vyavahāramayūkha⁴³⁶ quotes a verse from the Kālikāpurāṇa about an adopted son, which is very interesting 'persons adopted and the like on whom the saṁskāras of cūḍā (tonsure) and Upanayana are performed by the gotra of the adopter, become sons of (the adopter), otherwise the person (on whom such ceremonies are not performed) is held to be a slave

433. समवर्णोपि विंशं तु दासत्वं नैव कारयेत् । ब्राह्मणस्य हि दासत्वाच्चपतेजो विहन्यते ॥ शीलाध्ययनसंपत्ते तद्वनं कर्म कामतः । तत्रापि नाशुभं किञ्चित्पकुर्वीत द्विजोत्तमः ॥ कात्यायन (vv. 717 and 719) quoted by अपरार्क p. 789 and स्मृतिच०.

434. स्वाभिनस्तस्यां दास्यां जातं समातुकमदासं विद्यात् । कौटिल्य III. 13.

435. दासस्य तु धनं यत्स्वामी तस्य प्रभुः स्मृतः । प्रसादविक्रयाद्यत्तु न स्वामी धनमर्हति ॥ कात्यायन 724 (quoted by वि. र. p. 150 and वि. चि. p. 46).

436. यत्तु कालिकापुराणे चूडोपनयनसंस्कारा निजगोत्रेण वै कृताः । दत्ताद्यास्तनया ते स्युरन्यथा दास उच्यते ॥ व्यवहारमयूख p. 114 (of my edition). This verse occurs in the दत्तकमीमांसा also where the reading is चूडाया यदि संस्कारा.

(of the adopter).' The Vyavahāramayūkha remarks that this passage is not reliable as it is not found in several mss. of the Kālikāpurāṇa. Nārada mentions 15 kinds of slaves, but this is not one of them. All that the Kālikāpurāṇa probably means is that when a boy is adopted into another family after his cūḍā and upanayana are performed in the family of birth, he is not fully affiliated in the family of adoption, he does not become a son and so does not take the inheritance but is only entitled to maintenance in the family of adoption, just as a slave is to be fed. No digests have recognised such a person as a slave proper.

Nārada⁴³⁷ (ṛṇādāna 12) and Kātyāyana declare that a debt contracted by a Vedic pupil, an apprentice, a slave, the wife, a menial servant and a workman for the benefit of the family even though it was incurred in his absence, was binding on the owner of the house. Ordinarily a slave was not a competent witness, but Manu VIII. 70 and Uśanas (quoted in Vyavahāramayūkha p. 37) say that when no other witness is available, a minor, an old man, a woman, a pupil, a relative, a slave or a hired servant may be a witness.

There are numerous works dealing with slavery in its various aspects. The latest book on the subject is 'Slavery through the ages' by Sir George Mac Munn (1933). Mr. D. R. Banaji has published a very painstaking and interesting study on 'Slavery in British India' from 1772 to 1843 (2nd ed. 1937). The Carnegie Institution of Washington has published studies on several aspects such as 'Judicial Cases' (by Mrs. Catterall in 1926) and 'Documents of the history of the Slave Trade to America, 1930' by Prof. Elizabeth Donnan. Dr. H. J. Nieboer's 'Slavery as an Industrial System' (1910) is a well-documented study of slavery in various countries and at various times.

437. शिष्यान्तेवासिदासस्त्रीमिष्यकृत्यकरैश्च यत् । कुटुम्बहेतोरुत्क्षिप्तं दातव्यं तत्कुटुम्बिना ॥ नारद (ऋणादान v. 12); मोक्षितस्यामतेनापि कुटुम्बार्थमुक्तं । दासस्त्रीमातृशिष्यैर्वा दद्यात् पुत्रेण वा भृत्यः ॥ कात्यायन quoted by अपरार्क p. 648, वि. र. p. 56.

CHAPTER VI

SĀMSKĀRAS

Gautama (II. 1) says that before upanayana, a boy may act, speak and eat as and what he likes (i. e. may follow his inclinations). Haradatta explains that this does not mean that he can kill a brāhmaṇa or drink liquor, but that there is no restriction, although he be a brāhmaṇa's son, to his selling what is forbidden to a brāhmaṇa to sell, or he may eat onions and garlic or stale food or may eat four or five times a day. Āp. Dh. S. ⁴³⁸ (II. 1. 6. 15. 17-20) states several views on this point. 'Up to the time when they begin to take cooked food infants do not become impure (by the touch of a *rajasvalā* &c.); according to some (teachers) up till they are one year old; or till they are not able to distinguish the cardinal points; another view is that till upanayana (they do not become impure)'. Aparārka (p. 28) also explains that a boy may (before upanayana) eat the leavings of the food of his parents, but he cannot eat or drink what would cause loss of caste as in that case he may become unfit to have the saṁskāra of upanayana performed on him. The Smṛtyarthasāra gives the view of some that in case an infant touches a cāṇḍāla before it reaches the age of taking cooked food, only water need be sprinkled on it, before caula ācamana need be done by it and after caula (and before upanayana) a bath would be necessary. Vas. Dh. S. (II. 6) quotes a verse of Hārīta to the effect 'up till investiture with the girdle of muñja grass (i. e. till upanayana) there is no action that is obligatory on him, as long as he is not born again for Vedic study he may be in his conduct like a śūdra' ⁴³⁹. This verse occurs also in Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 6 and Manu II. 171 and 172. Dakṣa I. 3-4 says 'Till a boy is eight years old he is like one newly born and only indicates the caste in which he is born. As long as his upanayana is not performed the

438. आज्ञाभाज्ञानाद्गर्भो नाप्रयता भवन्ति । आ परिसंवत्सरादित्येके । यावता वा न विज्ञः प्रजानीयुः । ओपनयनादित्यपरम् । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 15. 17-20.

439. हारीतोऽप्युदाहरति । न ह्यस्मिन् विद्यते कर्म किञ्चिदामौञ्जिवन्धनात् । वृत्त्या शुद्धसमो ह्येष यावद्दे न जायते । इति । वसिष्ठ II. 6; बौध. ध. सू. reads नास्य कर्म नियच्छन्ति; compare विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 28. 40 प्राङ्मौञ्जीवन्धनाद् दिज्ञः शुद्धसमो भवति ।

boy incurs no blame as to what is allowed or forbidden to be eaten, as to what should (or should not) be drunk, as to what he should or should not speak, as to telling a falsehood'.⁴⁴⁰ But this does not hold good as to *mahāpātakas*. As to *prāyaścitta* when a child is guilty of the commission of a *mahāpātaka*, see under *prāyaścitta* later on and the Mit. on Yāj. III. 253. The *smṛtis* look upon *upanayana* as the second birth of a boy (the first being his physical birth)⁴⁴¹. Gaut. (X. 1 and 51) says that the three higher classes are called *dvijātis* (having two births), while the *sūdra* is only *ekajāti*.⁴⁴² Āp. Dh. S. says (I. 1. 1. 16-18) 'the teacher causes him (the boy who is initiated into Vedic study) to be born from *vidyā* (i.e. by imparting Vedic knowledge), that birth is superior, the parents produce only the body'⁴⁴³. *Upanayana* is like Baptism and St. John (3. 3) also says 'except a man be born again, he cannot see the Kingdom of God.' Manu II. 147-148 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 30. 45-46) convey the same idea. Manu (II. 169) speaks of three births in the case of a man, first birth from his mother, the second when the girdle is tied (i. e. on *upanayana*) and the third when he is initiated for a Vedic sacrifice. *Upanayana* is the foremost of the *samskāras*. Atri (141-142) says 'a person is known as a *brāhmaṇa* by birth, he is said to be a *dvija* (twice-born) on account of *samskāras*, he reaches the position of a *vipra* by learning (study of the Veda); he is called *śrotriya* on account of all these three'.⁴⁴⁴ Parāśara (VIII. 19) contains a fine image to illustrate this 'just as a work of painting gradually unfolds itself on account of the several colours (with which it is drawn), so *brāhmaṇya* (the status of a *brāhmaṇa*) is similarly

440. जातमात्रः क्षिप्रस्तावद्यावद्धौ समा वयः। स हि गर्भसमो ज्ञेयो जातिमात्रमदर्शकः॥
भक्ष्याभक्ष्ये तथापेये वाच्यावाच्ये तथाहृते। अस्मिन्वाले न दोषः स्यात्स यावत्क्षोपनीयते॥ दृक्ष
I. 3-4, quoted in अपरार्क (p. 28) and the second cited as from विष्णुपुराण
in परा. मा. I part 2 p. 29.

441. तद् द्वितीयं जन्म। तद्यस्मात्स आचार्यः। वेदानुवचनाच्च। गौ. I. 9-11.

442. द्विजातीनामध्ययनमिज्या दानम्। शूद्रश्चतुर्थो वर्ण एकजातिः। गौ. x. 1 and
51. Vide आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 1. 6.

443. स हि विद्यातस्तं जनयति। तच्छ्रुष्टं जन्म। शरीरमेव मातापितरौ जनयतः। आप.
घ. सू. I. 1. 1. 16-18.

444. जन्मना ब्राह्मणो ज्ञेयः संस्कारैर्द्विज उच्यते। विद्यया याति विप्रत्वं श्रोत्रियश्चि-
न्निरेव च॥ अत्रि 141-142; ब्रह्मपुराण reads जन्मना...। विद्यया वापि विप्रत्वं त्रिभिः
श्रोत्रिय उच्यते॥ quoted in सं. प्र. p. 404. चित्रकर्म यथानेकै रङ्गैरुन्मल्यते शनैः।
ब्राह्मण्यमपि तद्वत्स्यात्संस्कारैर्विधिपूर्वकैः। पराशर VIII. 19; quoted as Devala's by
Aparārka (p. 25) and as of Aṅgiras in Par. M. II. part I. p. 22,
संस्कारतत्त्व p. 857 and सं. प्र. p. 136.

brought out by saṁskāras performed according to prescribed rites.'

Therefore it is now time to speak of saṁskāras.

The word saṁskāra hardly ever occurs in the ancient Vedic literature, but the root 'kr' with 'sam' and the past passive participle 'saṁskṛta' occur often enough. In Rg. V. 76. 2 the word saṁskṛta is applied to 'gharma' (vessel) 'the two Aśvins do not harm the gharma that has been purified.' In Rg. VI. 28. 4 we have the word saṁskṛtatra' and Rg. VIII. 33. 9 has 'raṇāya saṁskṛtaḥ'. Śat.⁴⁴⁵ Br. I. 1. 4. 10 speaks of preparing (or purifying) offering (*havis*) for the gods. So in Śat. Br. III. 2. 1. 22 'therefore a woman approaches a man who stands in a well-trimmed (saṁskṛta) house.' Vide Vāj. S. IV. 34 for a similar use of saṁskṛta. In Chān. Up. IV. 16. 2, we⁴⁴⁶ read "of that sacrifice there are two ways, by mind, by speech; the Brahmā (priest) prepares (or polishes) one of them by his mind." The word saṁskāra is used several times in the sūtras of Jaimini (as in III. 1. 3, III. 2. 15 and 17, III. 8. 3, IX. 2. 9, 42, 44, IX. 3. 25, IX. 4. 33, IX. 4. 50 and 54, X. 1. 2 and 11 &c.). It generally means some purificatory act in a sacrifice e. g. in Jaimini III. 8. 3 the word is applied to the actions of shaving the head, washing the teeth and paring the nails on the part of the sacrificer in Jyotiṣṭoma; in IX. 3. 25 the word saṁskāra is applied to prokṣaṇa (sprinkling with water), in X. 2. 49 it is applied to the shaving of the head and face. In Jaimini⁴⁴⁷ VI. 1. 35 the word saṁskāra stands for upanayana. Śābara explains⁴⁴⁸ saṁskāra as that which being effected makes a certain thing or person fit for a certain purpose and the Tantra-vārtika says that saṁskāras are those actions and rites that

445. स इदं देवेभ्यो हविः संस्कुरु साधु संस्कृतं संस्कृत्वित्येवैतदाह । शतपथ I. 1. 4. 10; तस्माद् दुःखी पुमांसं संस्कृते तिष्ठन्तमभ्येति । शतपथ III. 2. 1. 22.

446. तस्मादेव एव यज्ञस्तस्य मनश्च वाक् च वर्तनी । तयोरन्यतरां मनसा संस्करोति ब्रह्मा वाचा होता । छान्दोग्य IV. 16. 1-2. The Brahmā priest remains silent and watches the whole sacrifice to see if there be any mistake, which he corrects by prāyaścitta.

447. संस्कारस्य तदर्थत्वाद्विद्यायां पुरुषश्रुतिः । जै. VI. 1. 35.

448. संस्कारो नाम स भवति यस्मिञ्जाते पदार्थो भवति योग्यः कस्यचिदर्थस्य । शबर on जै. III. 1. 3 (p. 660); योग्यतां चादधानाः क्रियाः संस्कारा इत्युच्यन्ते । तन्त्रवार्तिका p. 1078; संस्कारो हि नाम युगाधनेन वा स्याद् दीपापनयनेन वा । शंकर on वेदान्तसूत्र I. 1. 4.

impart fitness and it further says⁴⁴⁹ 'fitness is of two kinds; it arises by the removal of taints (sins) or by the generation of fresh qualities. Samskāras generate fresh qualities, while *tapas* brings about the removal of taints. He who performs such sacrifices as Jyotiṣṭoma and others has certain blemishes in him due to not doing in this life or a previous life duties laid down for him or doing what is forbidden. If they (blemishes) are not removed they obstruct the (acquisition of the) reward of the sacrifice even if it be entirely free from any defects whatever, as they (blemishes) produce (for the sacrificer) the experience of their own fruits that are opposed to the (fruit of the) sacrifice.' The *Vīramitrodaya*⁴⁵⁰ (on samskāra) defines 'samskāra' as 'a peculiar excellence due to the performance of rites ordained (by the śāstra) which resides either in the soul or the body' and says that it is of two kinds, one kind making a person eligible for performing other actions (e.g. upanayana renders a person eligible for Vedic study), while another kind removes the evil taint that may have been generated (e.g. Jātakarma removes the taint due to seed and uterus). The word *samskāra* does not occur in most of the gṛhyasūtras (it occurs in Vaik.), but it occurs in the Dharmasūtras (vide Gaut. VIII. 8, Āp. Dh. I. 1. 1. 9, Vas. IV. 1).

The principal matters that fall to be discussed under samskāras are: the purpose of samskāras, the classification of samskāras, the number of samskāras, the procedure of each of the samskāras and the persons authorized to perform them and the persons for whom they are to be performed.

First as to the purpose of samskāras. Manu (II. 27-28) says 'In the case of dvijātis, the taints (or sins) due to seed and the uterus (i. e. derived from parents) are wiped off by the *homas* (burnt oblations) performed during pregnancy and by jātakarma (ceremonies on birth), caula (tonsure) and the tying of the girdle of muñja grass. This (human) body is rendered fit for the attainment of *brahma* by the study of the Veda, by (observance of) vratas, homas (oblations in fire), by the vrata called traividya, by worship (of gods, sages and manes), by generation of sons, by the performance of the five daily

449. योग्यता च सर्वत्र द्वियकारा दोषापनयनेन गुणान्तरोपजननेन च भवति । तन्त्र-
वार्तिक p. 1115 on जै. III. 8. 9.

450. रुद्रस्कन्द on खादिरशुद्ध II. 3. 33 'एते गर्भाधानादयः संस्काराः शरीरे
संस्कुर्वन्तः सर्वेषु अदृष्टार्थेषु कर्मसु योग्यतातिशयं कुर्वन्ति । फलतिशयो योग्यतातिशये च । ।

sacrifices and by (solemn Vedic) sacrifices.' The view of Yāj. (I. 13) is that 'thus (i.e. by the performance of saṁskāras) the taint arising from the seed and uterus (i.e. from the physical defects of parents) is removed.' These words of Manu and Yāj. are variously interpreted by the commentators. Medhātithi says 'seed and uterus are not the causes of sin and therefore all that is meant by *enas* (in Manu II. 27) is impurity.' Kullūka explains that blemishes of seed are those arising from intercourse in a prohibited manner and the 'gārbhika' blemish is what arises from having to stay in the womb of an impure mother. The Mit.⁴⁵¹ on Yāj. I. 13 makes it clear that saṁskāras are deemed to remove bodily defects transmitted from parents (such as defective limbs, diseases &c.) and are not intended to remove the taint of being born of sinful parents. Manu II. 66 also states that all the saṁskāras are performed on a woman also for the purification of the body. Hārīta⁴⁵² as quoted in the Saṁskāratattva says 'when a person has intercourse according to the procedure of *garbhādhāna* he establishes in the wife a foetus that becomes fit for the reception of the Veda, by the rite of *pūṁsavana* he makes the garbha become a male, by the ceremony of *Simantonnayana* he removes from the foetus the taint derived from the parents and the accumulated taints (which are five) due to seed, blood and womb are removed by *jātakarma*, *nāmakaraṇa*, *annaprāśana*, *cūḍākarana* and *samāvartana*. By these eight saṁskāras (from *garbhādhāna*) purity arises.' The exact significance of saṁskāras in the development of higher human personality was left rather vague in our authorities and their treatment of the purpose of saṁskāras is not very elaborate or exhaustive. The saṁskāras had been treated from very ancient times as necessary for unfolding the latent capacities of man for development and as being the outward symbols or signs of the inner change which would fit human beings for corporate life and they also tended to confer a certain status on those who underwent them. If we look at the list of saṁskāras we shall find that the purposes

451. बीजगर्भसमुद्भवं शुक्रशोणितसंयुद्धं गात्रग्याधिसंक्रान्तिनिमित्तं वा न नृपति-
तोत्पन्नत्वाद् । निता. on या. I. 13; एनोऽत्रायायत्यं मातुः पीताशनादेरुत्पन्नमित्यर्थः ।
अपरार्क.

452. तत्र हारीतः । गर्भाधानवदुपेतो ब्रह्मगर्भं संदधाति । पुंसवनात्पुंसिकरोति फल-
स्थापनात्मातापितृजं पाप्मानमपोहति रेतोरक्तगर्भापिघातः पञ्चगुणो जातकर्मणा प्रथममपोहति
नामकरणेन द्वितीयं प्राशनेन तृतीयं चूडाकरणेन चतुर्थं स्नापनेन पञ्चममेतेरष्टाभिः संस्कारैर्ग-
र्भापिघातात् पुत्रो भवतीति । संस्कारतत्त्व (p. 857).

of saṃskāras were manifold. Some like Upanayana served spiritual and cultural purposes, they brought the unredeemed person into the company of the elect, they opened the door to Vedic study and thus conferred special privileges and exacted duties. They have also psychological values impressing on the mind of the person that he has assumed a new role and must strive to observe its rules. Other saṃskāras like nāmakarṇa, annaprāśana, and nīskramṇa were more or less of a popular nature. They afforded opportunities for the expression of love and affection and for festivities. Other saṃskāras like garbhādhāna, pūṃsavana, sīmantonayana had also mystical and symbolical elements. Vivāha (marriage) was a sacrament which brought about a union of two personalities into one for the purpose of the continuance of society and for the uplift of the two by self-restraint, by self-sacrifice and mutual co-operation.

The saṃskāras were divided by Hārīta into two kinds, brāhma and daiva.⁴⁵³ The saṃskāras of garbhādhāna and others which are described only in the smṛtis are called brāhma and the man who is purified by performing them attains equality with sages, stays in the same world with them and is joined with them; pākayajñas (offerings of cooked food), yajñas with burnt offerings and sacrifices in which soma is offered are called daiva (saṃskāras). The last two varieties, viz. those in which there is burnt offering and those in which soma is offered, are dealt with in the śrauta sūtras, which have been left outside the purview of this work (except in the note at the end of this volume).

There is a great divergence of views among the writers on smṛtis as to the number of saṃskāras. Gaut. (VIII. 14-24) speaks of forty saṃskāras and eight virtues of the soul. The forty saṃskāras are: garbhādhāna, pūṃsavana, sīmantonayana, jātakarma, nāmakarṇa, annaprāśana, caula, upanayana (8 in all), the four vratas of the Veda, snāna (or samāvartana), vivāha, five daily mahāyajñas (for deva, pitṛ, manuṣya,

453. तथा च हारीतः । द्विविधः संस्कारो भवति ब्राह्मो दैवश्च । गर्भावनादिस्मार्तो ब्राह्मः । पाकयज्ञहविर्यज्ञसौम्याश्चेति दैवः । ब्रह्मसंस्कारसंस्कृत ऋषीणां समानतां सलोकतां सायुज्यं गच्छति । दैवेनोत्तरेण संस्कृतो देवानां समानतां सलोकतां सायुज्यं गच्छति । इति । स्मृतिच. I. p. 13, परा. मा. I. part 2 p. 18, संस्कारयकाश p. 135. The editor of the परा. मा. says it is हारीतवर्मसूत्र XI. 1-5 (from the MS he had discovered).

bhūta and brahma); seven pākayajñas⁴⁵⁴ (viz. aṣṭakā, pārvanasthālīpāka, śrāddha, śrāvaṇī, āgrahāyaṇī, caitrī, āśvayujī); seven haviryajñas (in which there is burnt offering but no soma) viz. Agnyādheya, Agnihotra, Darśapūrṇamāsa, Āgrayana, Cāturmāsya, Nirūdhapaśubandha and Sautrāmaṇī); seven soma sacrifices (Agniṣṭoma, Atyagniṣṭoma, Ukthya, Śoḍaśīn, Vājapeya, Atirātra, Āptoryāma). Gautama uses the word saṁskāra in the most extended sense. Śaṅkha as quoted by the Sm. C. (I. p. 13) and the Subodhini on Mit. II. 4 follow Gautama. Vaik. speaks of eighteen śārīra saṁskāras (in which he includes utthāna, pravāsāgamana, piṇḍavardhana, which are seen nowhere else as saṁskāras) and twenty-two yajñas (i. e. five daily yajñas as one and seven pākayajñas, seven havir-yajñas, and seven soma yajñas). Most gṛhyasūtras, dharmasūtras and smṛtis do not enumerate so many. Āṅgīras (quoted in the Saṁskāra-mayūkha, Saṁskāra-prakāśa p. 135 and other digests) mentions twenty-five saṁskāras. They include all saṁskāras of Gautama from garbhādhāna to the five daily yajñas (which latter are reckoned as one saṁskāra by Āṅgīras) and after nāmakaraṇa niṣkramaṇa is added. Besides, Viṣṇubali, Āgrayana, Aṣṭakā, Śrāvaṇī, Āśvayujī, Mārgaśīrṣī (same as Āgrahāyaṇī), Pārvaṇa, Utsarga and Upākarma are enumerated as the remaining saṁskāras by Āṅgīras. Veda-Vyāsa I. 14-15 enumerates sixteen saṁskāras. Manu, Yāj., Viṣṇu Dh. S. do not give the number of saṁskāras but simply say that they are those from niṣeka (garbhādhāna) to smaśāna (i. e. antyeṣṭi). This last one is not treated of in Gautama and several gṛhyasūtras. In most of the digests the principal saṁskāras are said to be sixteen; but there is some difference of opinion even as to these sixteen.⁴⁵⁵ For example, Jātūkarṇya as quoted in Saṁ. Pr. (p. 135) enumerates the 16 as garbhādhāna, pūṁsavana, śimanta, jātakarṇa, nāmakaraṇa, annasrāśana, caula, mauñjī

454. According to some the seven pākayajñas are: aupāsanahoma, vaiśvadeva, pārvaṇa (sthālīpāka), aṣṭakā, śrāddha (monthly), sarpabali and īśānabali. Vide Sm. C. I. p. 13. The Baud. gr. I. 1. gives the seven pākayajñas as huta, prahuta, ahuta, sūlagava, baliharaṇa, pratyavarohana and aṣṭakā homa. Vide S. B. E. Vol. 30 p. 358 for several differing enumerations of pākayajñas.

455. तत्र संस्काराः । गर्भाधान...विवाहाश्चेत्यावश्यकः षोडश प्रधानाः संस्काराः । स्मृत्यर्थेसार p. 3. The 16 usually enumerated in the digests are गर्भाधान, पुंसवन, सीमन्तोन्नयन, विष्णुबलि, जातकर्म, नामकरण, निष्क्रमण, अन्नपाशन, चोद, उपनयन, वेदवतचतुष्टय, समावर्तन, विवाह.

(upanayana), vratas (four), godāna, samāvartana, vivāha and antyeṣṭi. These slightly differ from the sixteen of Veda-Vyāsa.

The gr̥hyasūtras deal with saṁskāras in two different sequences. Many of them begin with vivāha (marriage) and then proceed up to samāvartana. Some like the Hiraṇyakeśigr̥hya, Bhāradvājagr̥hya and Mānavagr̥hya begin with upanayana.⁴⁵⁶ Some saṁskāras like Karnavedha and Vidya-rambha are conspicuous by their absence in the gr̥hyasūtras, but are added by later smṛtis and purāṇas. The following is the list of all the saṁskāras usually so called in most of the smṛti works together with a few remarks against each as to the work or works in which each is mentioned or described. The saṁskāras are arranged in the sequence of the times at which in a man's life they are performed beginning from garbhādhāna:

Rtu-saṁgamana—mentioned in Vaik.⁴⁵⁷ I. 1 as distinct from garbhādhāna; it calls it niṣeka also (VI. 2) and describes it in III. 9 and garbhādhāna in III. 10. The Vaik. commences the saṁskāras with niṣeka.

Garbhādhāna: Niṣeka: Caturthīkarma or-homa:—Manu (II. 16 and 26), Yāj. I. 10-11, Viṣṇu Dh. S. (2. 3 and 27. 1) employ the word niṣeka as equivalent to garbhādhāna. In the Śāṅkhāyana gr̥hya (I. 18-19), Pār. gr. I. 11, and Āp. gr. (8. 10-11) the rite called caturthīkarma or caturthīhoma takes the place of the rite called garbhādhāna elsewhere and there is no separate description of garbhādhāna in these and some similar

456. For detailed treatment of some of the saṁskāras, vide Dr. (Mrs.) Kamalabai Deshpande's work 'the Child in ancient India' (with copious references to the gr̥hya sūtras); Mrs. Stevenson's 'the Rites of the twice-born' (1920), which exhaustively reviews in the minutest details the rites of brāhmaṇas (particularly in Kathiawar and Gujarat) as observed at present. This work however gives hardly any references to original Sanskrit authorities, is permeated by the spirit of a Christian missionary and commits the mistake, usual with most Western writers, of comparing hoary Indian customs, usages and the position of women with those of the West only in the latter half of the 19th century, altogether ignoring what existed in Europe over a few hundred years ago, though it is generally written with sympathy and understanding. Colebrooke's Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. I. pp. 123-226 (London, 1837), Monier Williams' 'Religious thought and life in India' part I (1883), Vidyārṇava's 'on daily practices' in the 20th volume of 'the Sacred Books of the Hindus' may also be consulted.

457. ऋतौ संगमनं निषेकमित्याहुः । वैखानस VI. 2; अथ निषेकादिस्तंकाराद्यव्याख्यास्यानः । वैखानस I. 1.

gr̥hyasūtras. The Baud. gr. (IV. 6. 1), the Kāthakagr̥hya (30. 8), Gaut. (VIII. 14), Yāj. I. 11 employ the word garbhādhāna. According to Vaik. (III. 10) the garbhādhāna rite follows niṣeka or r̥tu-saṅgamana (union of married pair after menstruation) and consists in ensuring conception.

Puṁsavana:—occurs in almost all the gr̥hyasūtras, in Gaut., in Yāj. (I. 11).

Garbharakṣaṇa:—mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana gr. (I. 21). It seems to be the same as the Anavalobhana which according to the Āśvalāyana gr. (I. 13. 1) occurs in the Upaniṣad and which is described in Āśv. gr. (I. 13. 5-7).

Simantonmayana:—This occurs almost everywhere. Yāj. I. 11 uses the word sīman̐ta.

Viṣṇubali:—mentioned in Baud. gr. (I. 10. 13-17 and I. 11. 2), Vaik. (III. 13), Aṅgiras. It is not mentioned by Gautama and several other ancient sūtrakāras.

Soṣyanti-karma or *homa*:—described in Khādira and Gobhila. It is called Soṣyanti-savana in Kāthaka-gr̥hya and Kṣiprasuvana in Āp. gr., Bhāradvāja gr. and Kṣipraprasavana in Hir. gr. (S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 210). It occurs in Budhasmṛti (as quoted in Saṁskāra-prakāśa p. 139).

Jātakarma:—This is described in all sūtras and smṛtis.

Uthāna:—mentioned only in the Vaik. (III. 18) and in Śān. gr. I. 25 (S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 51-52).

Nāmakaraṇa:—mentioned in all smṛtis.

Niṣkramaṇa or *Upaniṣkramaṇa* or *Ādityadarśana* or *Nirṇayana*:—Yāj. I. 11 speaks of it as Niṣkramaṇa, Pār. gr. (I. 17) as Niṣkramaṇikā, Manu II. 34 speaks of it as Niṣkramaṇa. The Kauśikasūtra 58. 18 calls it Nirṇayana; while Baud. gr. (II. 2) employs the word upaniṣkramaṇa; Mānava gr. (I. 19. 1), Viṣṇu Dh. S. (27. 10), Śāṅkha (in verse, II. 5) employ appropriately the name Ādityadarśana. Gaut., Āp. gr. and several other sūtras omit it.

Karṇavedha:—omitted in almost all ancient smṛtis; mentioned in Veda-Vyāsa smṛti (I. 19), Baud. gr. śeṣa-sūtra (I. 12. 1), Kātyāyana-sūtra (a supplement to Pār. gr.)

Annaprāśana:—mentioned by almost every smṛti.

Varṣavardhana or *Abdapūrti*:—mentioned in Gobhila, Śān. Pār., Baud.

Caula or *Cūḍākarma* or *Cūḍākaraṇa* :—mentioned by all smṛtis.

Vidyārambha :—not mentioned in any smṛti but only in Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa quoted by Aparārka (p. 30) and Sm. C. (I. p. 26).

Upanayana :—mentioned by all. It is called *vratādeśa* in Veda-Vyāsa I. 14.

Vratas (four) :—mentioned by most of the gṛhyasūtras.

Keśānta or *Godāna* :—Mentioned by almost all.

Samāvartana or *Snāna* :—there is great divergence about these two. Manu (III. 4) seems to keep *snāna* (ceremonial bath after the period of studentship is over) as distinct from *samāvartana*. Gaut., Āp. gr. V. 12-13, Hīr. gr. I. 9. 1, Yāj. I. 51, Pār. gr. (II. 6-7) employ the word *snāna* for both the ceremonial bath and the rites of return from the teacher's house on finishing one's studies, while Āśv. gr. (III. 8. 1), Baud. gr. (II. 6. 1), Śāṅ. gr. III. 1, Āp. Dh. S. (I. 2. 7. 15 and 31) employ the word *Samāvartana*.

Vivāha :—Mentioned by all as a *samskāra*.

Mahāyajñas :—five daily *yajñas*; mentioned by Gaut., Āṅgiras and others.

Utsarga :—(seasonal giving up of Veda studies) is mentioned as a *samskāra* in Vaik. (I. 1) and by Āṅgiras.

Upākarma :—(yearly commencement of Veda study) mentioned as a *samskāra* by Vaik. (I. 1) and by Āṅgiras.

Antyeṣṭi :—mentioned by Manu II. 16 and Yāj. I. 10.

It is laid down that the *samskāras* from *jātakarma* to *cūḍākarma* were to be performed in the case of the twice-born classes with Vedic mantras when the child was a male and that in the case of girls the ceremonies were to be performed but without Vedic mantras; vide Āśv. gr. (I. 15. 12, I. 16. 6, I. 17. 18), Manu II. 66, Yāj. I. 13. But marriage in the case of the girls of the three higher classes was to be performed with Vedic mantras (Manu II. 67, Yāj. I. 13).

The *samskāras*⁴⁵⁸ from *garbhādhāna* to *upanayana* alone were absolutely necessary in the case of all twice-born persons;

458. अत्र गर्भाधानाद्युपनयनपर्यन्ता एव संस्काराः सर्वेषां नियताः न पुनः स्नानादयः । तथाले यमिच्छेत्कर्तुं तमावसेद्यदि वेतरथा ब्रह्मचर्यादिव प्रव्रजेदिति विरोधः स्यात् । स्मृतिच० I. pp. 13-14; स्मृतिह. (वर्णाश्रमधर्म p. 73). The words 'यदि वेतरथा व्रजेत्' are जाबालोपनिषद् 4.

the saṁskāras of snāna and vivāha were not obligatory, as a man was allowed to become a saṁnyāsin (ascetic) immediately after finishing the period of studenthood (according to the Jābālopaniṣad). The Saṁskāraprakāśa enters upon an elaborate discussion as to whether jātakarma could be performed for a child that is neither a male nor a female (pp. 195-197) and arrives at the conclusion that jātakarma and other saṁskāras cannot be performed for a *klība* (impotent) child.

Another question was as to what saṁskāras could be performed for the śūdra. The view of Vedavyāsa that he could have ten saṁskāras performed (but without Vedic mantras) has been stated above (p. 159). The Baijavāpa⁴⁵⁹ grhya says that seven saṁskāras are allowed to the śūdra viz. from *garbhādhāna* (or *niṣeka*) to *caula*. The view of Aparārka⁴⁶⁰ appears to be that the eight saṁskāras from *garbhādhāna* to *caula* (in Yāj. I.11-12) were meant for all varṇas (including the śūdra). According to the Madanaratna, Rūpanārāyaṇa and the bhāṣya of Harihara as quoted in the Nirṇayasindhu, the śūdras were entitled to perform six saṁskāras viz. jātakarma, nāmakaraṇa, niṣkramaṇa, annaprāsana, cūḍā and vivāha and the five daily mahāyajñas. The Śūdrakṛtya-tattva of Raghunandana (p. 634) quotes a verse from the Varāhapurāṇa⁴⁶¹ 'this very procedure (about śrāddha) has been declared in the case of śūdras but without mantras; for the śūdra who is not entitled to repeat a mantra, a brāhmaṇa repeats the mantra' and then remarks that for a śūdra a mantra from the purāṇas is to be repeated by the brāhmaṇa priest employed, that the śūdra is not to repeat even the purāṇa mantras but has only to say 'namaḥ'. The Nirṇayasindhu⁴⁶² mentions with approval the same view of Sūlapāni that in all religious ceremonies for śūdras the mantras are to be taken from the purāṇas and that they are to be repeated by the brāhmaṇa priest. The Brahmapurāṇa⁴⁶³ quoted

459. वैजवापयह्येऽपि । शूद्रस्यापि निषेक-पुंसवन-सीमन्तोन्नयनजातकर्मनःमकरणा-प्राशनचौलान्यमन्त्रकाणि यथाकालमुपदिष्टानीति । वीरमित्रोदय (सं. प्र.) p. 133.

460. एतच्च चातुर्वर्ण्याभिप्रायं न द्विजातिमात्रविषयम् । तथा सत्सुपनयनं विधाय वान्धवं स्यात् । अपरार्क p. 25.

461. तत्र द्रव्यदेवतामकाशार्थं ब्राह्मणेन मन्त्राः पाठ्याः । 'अयमेव विधिः प्रोक्तः शूद्राणां मन्त्रवर्जितः । अमन्त्रस्य तु शूद्रस्य मन्त्रो विभेण गृह्यते' इति वराहपुराणात् । शूद्रकृत्यतत्त्व p. 634.

462. अमन्त्रस्य तु शूद्रस्य मन्त्रो विभेण गृह्यते इति मरीच्युक्तेश्च । इयं परिभाषा सर्वार्थं तेन शूद्रधर्मेण सर्वत्र विभेण मन्त्रः पठनीयः सोऽपि पौराण एवेति शूलपाणिः । निर्णयसिन्धु III. पूर्वार्ध

463. ब्राह्मो तु 'विवाहमात्रसंस्कारं शूद्रोऽपि लभतां सदा' इत्युक्तम् । अत्र सवत्सृक-गोचरत्वेन देशभेदादप्यवस्था । निर्णयसिन्धु III. पूर्वार्ध.

in the Sm. C. (I. p. 24) and other digests states that no other samskāra than vivāha is allowed to the sūdra. On this the Nirṇayasindhu remarks that these conflicting views are to be reconciled by holding that the liberal ones apply to good (sat) sūdras and the stricter ones to low (asat) sūdras or that the rules are different in different countries.

It is to be noted that in modern times most of the samskāras (except garbhādhāna, upanayana and vivāha) have fallen into oblivion and are hardly ever performed even by brāhmaṇas in the manner and at the times prescribed by the smṛtis. Owing to the rapid rise in the marriageable age of brāhmaṇa girls, even the samskāra of garbhādhāna is falling into abeyance. Nāmakaraṇa, annaprāśana are performed in a popular way but without Vedic mantras or without calling a priest to officiate. In most cases caula is performed on the day of the upanayana and samāvartana is also performed a few days after upanayana. Jātakarma and annaprāśana are performed on the same day in some parts (e. g. in Bengal). It appears that this state of things has continued for centuries. The Smṛtyarthasāra⁴⁶⁴ (p. 3) says 'if the samskāras (except upanayana) are not performed at the prescribed times, the Vyāhrtihoma should be offered and then the samskāras should be performed (though late). For each samskāra that is not performed the penance called pādakṛcchra should be performed (if the non-performance is due to some difficulty or distress), and for non-performance of caula the penance is ardha-kṛcchra. If the samskāras were knowingly omitted or if there was no distress then the penance is double⁴⁶⁵ of this.' The Nirṇayasindhu quotes verses of Śaunaka⁴⁶⁶ to this effect and then remarks that there was a conflict of views, some holding that after the penance the samskāras passed over should be performed all at one time,

464. The Vyāhrtihoma consists in offering clarified butter with the mystic syllables, bhūh, bhuvaḥ, svaḥ (or suvaḥ) uttered separately and then together. Vide Hir. gr. I. 3. 4 (S. B. E. Vol. 30 p. 144).

465. एते कालातिक्रमे व्याहृतिहोमं कृत्वा कार्याः । एतेष्वेकैकलोपे पादकृच्छ्रः कार्यः । चौले त्वर्धकृच्छ्रः । मत्या लोपेऽनापदि च द्विगुणः । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 3; for पादकृच्छ्र vide Yāj. III. 318 and निता thereon where अर्धकृच्छ्र also is explained.

466. अथ संस्कारलोपे शौनकः । आरभ्याधानमाचौलात्कालेति ते तु कर्मणाम् । व्याहृत्यासि तु संस्कृत्य हुत्वा कर्म यथाक्रमम् ॥ एतेष्वेकैकलोपे तु पादकृच्छ्रं समाचरेत् । चूडायाः मर्धकृच्छ्रं स्यादापदि त्वेवमीरितम् । अनापदि तु सर्वत्र द्विगुणं द्विगुणं चरेत् । इति । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वाध्यायः, सूत्रिह. (वर्णाश्रमधर्म p. 99) quotes a similar verse from कात्यायन 'गर्भाधानादिचौलान्ते स्वकाले विधिनाऽकृते । प्रत्येकं पादकृच्छ्रं स्याद्विगुणं स्यादनापदि ॥'

while others held that they should not be performed at all after undergoing penance and a third view was that if caula was left unperformed it may be performed on the same day as upanayana. The Dharmaśāstra (3rd pariccheda, purvārdha) states various substitutes (which are comparatively easy) for these penances. For example, one prajāpatya penance is equal to three Pādakṛcchras. In place of prajāpatya the person guilty of the lapse may make the gift of a cow or (in the absence of a cow) may give one niṣka (320 guṇjās) of gold or one half or one-fourth of it; one who is very poor may give one-eighth of a silver niṣka or corn of that value. There being these easy substitutes (*pratyāmāya* as they were called) people gradually left off performing the several saṃskāras and concentrated themselves only on upanayana and vivāha. The whole life of a person was so very minutely worked out and overlaid with so much ritual in the gṛhyasūtras and smṛtis that the tendency to neglect and change became insistent and inevitable. This tendency was helped by the accommodating spirit of the brāhmaṇa authors of later smṛtis and digests that were ready to prescribe easier and easier substitutes for non-observance of the elaborate sacraments, pre-natal and post-natal. Haradatta in commenting on Gaut. I. 6 (upanayanam brāhmaṇasya aṣṭame) remarks 'the teacher (Gautama) expounding upanayana first and passing over the saṃskāras like garbhādhāna that precede upanayana in time conveys that upanayana is the principal saṃskāra. Therefore even if the saṃskāras like garbhādhāna did not take place owing to adverseness of fate, upanayana can be performed, but it follows that if upanayana be not performed there is no *adhikāra* (eligibility) for marriage which follows only after upanayana.'⁴⁶⁷ In modern times in undergoing prāyaścitta for non-performance of the saṃskāras up to caula rupees two have to be paid to the priest (annas four for each of the saṃskāras not performed up to caula and annas eight for caula).⁴⁶⁸

467. प्रथमभाविनो गर्भाधानादीन्संस्काराञ्छुद्ध्युपनयनं व्याचक्षाणस्तस्य प्राधान्यं दर्शयति । तेन दैवानुपपत्त्या गर्भाधानादेरकरणेऽपि उपनयनं भवति । तस्याकरणे तु विवाहादि-
ष्वनाधिकार इति सिद्धम् । हरदत्त on गौ. I. 6.

468. Vide मदनपारिजात p. 752 for कृच्छ्रप्रत्याम्नाय and संस्कारकौस्तुभ
pp. 141-142 for various प्रत्याम्नायः. The modern saṃkalpa at the time of
upanayana for late performance or non-performance of saṃskāras is:
अमुकशर्मणः मम पुत्रस्य गर्भाधानपुंसवनसंमिन्तोत्थयन-जातकर्मनामकरणाक्षप्रक्षानचौलान्तानां
संस्काराणां कालातिप्रतिजनित- (or लोपजनित) प्रत्यवायपरिहारार्थं प्रतिसंस्कारं पाद्-
कृच्छ्रात्मकप्राप्यधितं चूडाया अर्धकृच्छ्रात्मकं प्रतिकृच्छ्रं गोमूल्यरजतनिष्कपाद्पाद्प्रत्याम्ना-
यद्वाराहमाचरिष्ये ।

The samskāras will now be described in detail. The material contained in the sūtras, smṛtis and nibandhas is so vast that only very concise statements can be made here. The method followed will be as follows. Each samskāra will be described from a few representative gṛhya and dharma sūtras such as the Āśv. gr., Āp. gr., and references will be given to other important works. Only important parts of procedure can be noted, minute divergences among the several works being passed over. Greater details will be given in the case of the two chief samskāras viz. upanayana and marriage which are in vogue even now.⁴⁶⁹

Garbhādhāna:—The beginnings of this ceremony are found very early. Atharvaveda V. 25 appears to be a hymn intended for the garbhādhāna rite. Atharva V. 25. 3 and 5 are verses which occur in the Br. Up. VI. 4. 21; the passage of the Br. Up. VI. 4. 13, 19-22 may be rendered thus: 'At the end of three days (after menstruation first appears) when she (wife) has bathed, the husband should make her pound rice (which is then boiled and eaten with various other things according as he desires a fair, brown or dark son or a learned son or a learned daughter)... and then towards morning, after having according to the rule of the Sthālipāka performed the preparation of the clarified butter, he sacrifices from the Sthālipāka little by little,

-469. Besides the gṛhya sūtras, the dharmasūtras, Manu, Yājñavalkya and other smṛtis, the principal digests on samskāra relied upon here are the Samskāratattva of Raghunandana, the Samskāramayūkha of Nīlakaṇṭha, the Samskāra-prakāśa of Mitrāmīśra, the Samskārakauṣṭubha of Anantadeva and the Samskāratnamālā of Gopinātha. Further, one should never lose sight of the fact that in a vast continent like India the various items in daily rites and ceremonies have always varied from age to age, from province to province and from caste to caste. Innumerable modifications were introduced and usages cropped up among the people, particularly owing to the influence of women, of which smṛtis and digests take no notice. This was the state of things even several centuries before Christ. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 11. 29. 15) closes with the aphorism 'some teachers hold that the rest of the dharmas (not described here) may be understood from (the usages of) women and of all varṇas'. The Āśv. gr. (I. 7. 1) states 'various indeed are the usages of the different countries and of the different villages; one should observe them in marriage ceremonies.' This work does not profess to give the bewildering differences of the several śākhās and the several provinces of Modern India, but will restrict itself principally to Western India and the Āśv. sūtra, though important variations have been pointed out in many places.

saying 'This is for Agni, svāhā; this is for Anumati, svāhā; this is for divine Savitr, the true creator, svāhā! Having sacrificed he takes out the rest of the sice, eats it and after having eaten he gives some of it to his wife. Then he washes his hands, fills a water jar and sprinkles her thrice with water saying 'Rise, oh Viśvāvasu, seek another blooming girl, a wife with her husband.' Then he embraces her and says 'I am Ama, thou art Sā. Thou art Sā, I am Ama. I am the Sāman, thou art the Rk. I am the sky, thou art the earth. Come, let us strive together that a male child may be begotten' (VI. 4. 21-22 cannot be literally translated for reasons of decency). Briefly the husband has intercourse with her and repeats certain mantras 'may Viṣṇu make ready your private parts, may Tvaṣṭā frame your beauty, may Prajāpati sprinkle and may Dhātā implant an embryo into you; Oh Sinivālī! Oh Prthuṣṭukā! implant embryo (in her), may the two Āsvins who wear a garland of lotuses plant in thee an embryo..... As the earth has fire inside it, as heaven has Indra inside it, as the wind is inside (as the embryo of) the quarters, so I plant a *garbha* in thee, oh, so and so (the name of the woman being taken)'.⁴⁷⁰ In the Āśv. gr. (I. 13. 1) it is expressly stated that in the Upaniṣad the ceremonies of Garbhā-lambhana (conceiving a child), Pūṁsavana (securing a male child) and Anavalobhana (guarding against dangers to the embryo) are mentioned. Evidently this is a reference to the Br. Up. quoted above (where four mantras used in the garbhādhāna saṁskāra by Hir. and other grhya sūtras occur).

The rite called *caturthīkarma* is described in the Śāṅkhāyana gr. (I. 18-19, S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 44-46) as follows "Three

470. Vide Appendix for text and S. B. E. vol. 15, pp. 220-221 for the translation of the passage. Max Muller notes that the passage 'amohasmi' occurs in the Atharvaveda XIV. 71, that a similar passage (where instead of 'sā tvam' there is 'sa tvam') occurs in Ait. Br. VIII. 27 and that in the Chāndogya Up. I. 6. 1 *sā* is explained as earth and 'ama' as fire. The mantra 'may Viṣṇu...embryo into you' is Rg. X. 184. 1 = Atharvaveda V. 25. 5, and the mantra 'oh Sinivālī...an embryo' is Rg. X. 184. 2 = Atharva V. 25. 3 (where 'Sarasvatī' is read for 'prthuṣṭuke'. The Nirukta (XI. 32. on Rg. II. 32. 6 where we have an invocation to Sinivālī in the words 'give us progeny', प्रजं देवि दिदिष्टि नः) explains 'prthuṣṭuke' as 'prthujaghane' (having large buttocks or large mass of hair). The words 'garbham dadhātu' probably suggested the name 'garbhādhāna' given to this rite. The Hir. gr. I. 7. 25. 1. has the above two mantras and also the mantra 'as the earth &c' (and another mantra also) which four occur in Br. Up. VI. 4. 21-22; vide S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 199.

nights after marriage having elapsed, on the fourth the husband makes into fire eight offerings of cooked food to Agni, Vāyu, Sūrya (the mantra being the same for all three except the name of the deity), Aryaman, Varuṇa, Pūṣan (mantras being the same for these three), Prajāpati (the mantra is Rg. X. 121. 10), to (Agni) Sviṣṭakṛt. Then he pounds the root of Adhyandā plant and sprinkles it into the wife's nostril with two verses (Rg. X. 85. 21-22) with svāhā at the end of each. He should then touch her, when about to cohabit, with the words 'the mouth of the Gandharva Viśvāvasu art thou'. Then he should murmur 'into the breath I put the sperm, Oh! so and so (the name of the wife) or he repeats the verse 'as the earth has fire inside &c. (quoted above from Br. Up. VI. 4. 22) or several other verses in this strain 'may a male embryo enter thy womb as an arrow into the quiver; may a man be born here, a son, after ten months'.⁴⁷¹ The Pār. gr. (I. 11, S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 288-290) also has a similar procedure. Āp. gr. (8. 10-11, S. B. E. vol. 30, pp. 267-268), Gobhila II. 5 (S. B. E. vol. 30, pp. 51-52) give briefly a similar procedure, but refer to mantras given in the Mantrapāṭha (e. g. Āp. M. P. I. 10. 1. to I. 11. 11). To modern minds it appears strange that intercourse should have been surrounded by so much of mysticism and religion in the ancient sūtras. But in ancient times every act was sought to be invested with a religious halo; so much so that according to Hir. gr. I. 7. 25.3. (S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 200) Ātreya held that mantras were to be repeated at each cohabitation throughout life, while Bādarāyaṇa prescribed that this was necessary only at the first cohabitation and after each monthly course.⁴⁷² The Hir. gr. (I. 7, 23. 11 to 7. 25, S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 197-200) gives a very elaborate rite, but on the same lines as the above grhyasūtras. One of the mantras is interesting on account of its reference to the cakravāka birds (I. 7. 24. 6), 'The concord that belongs to the cakravāka birds, that is brought out of the rivers of which the divine Gandharva is possessed, thereby we are concordant' (S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 198). The Vaik. (III. 9) calls this ceremony ṛtusaṅgamana and is similar to Āp. gr. and Hir. gr. It will be seen that the

471. The mantra 'आ ते योनिं गर्भं पतु युमान् वाण इवेष्टुयिम्। आ श्रीरोऽत्र जायतां पुत्रस्ते दशमास्यः ॥' is अथर्ववेद III. 23. 2. This occurs also in हिरण्य-कोशियुद्ध I. 7. 25. 1.

472. भारद्वाजयुद्ध I. 20 ascribes these views respectively to Āsamarathya and Alekhana 'सर्वान्पुत्रायनानि मन्त्रवन्ति भवन्तरियाश्मरथ्यो यज्ञादौ यज्ञार्तावित्या-लेखनः' ॥

caturthikarma is treated by the grhya writers as part of the marriage rites and the rite was performed irrespective of the question whether it was the first appearance of menses or whether the wife had just before the marriage come out of her monthly illness. This indicates that it was taken for granted that the wife had generally attained the age of puberty at the time of marriage. As the marriageable age of girls came down it appears that the rite of caturthikarma was discontinued and the rite was performed long after the ritual of marriage and appropriately named *garbhādhāna*.

The smṛtis and nibandhas add many details some of which will have to be noticed. Manu (III. 46) and Yāj. I. 79 say that the natural period (for conception) is sixteen nights from the appearance of menses. Āp. gr. 9. 1 says⁴⁷³ that each of the even nights from the 4th to 16th (after the beginning of the monthly illness) are more and more suited for excellence of (male) offspring. Hārta also says the same. These two appear to allow garbhādhāna on the fourth night, but Manu (III. 47), Yāj. (I. 79) lay down that the first four nights must be omitted. Kātyāyana, Parāśara (VII. 17) and others say that a woman in her menses is purified by bathing on the 4th day. Laghu-Āśvalāyana (III. 1) says that the garbhādhāna ceremony should be performed on the first appearance of menses after the 4th day has elapsed. The Sm. C. suggests that the 4th may be allowed if there is entire cessation of the flow.⁴⁷⁴ Manu (IV. 128) and Yāj. I. 79 added further restrictions viz. that new moon and full moon days and the 8th and 14th tithis of the month were also to be omitted. Astrological details were added by Yāj. I. 80 (that the Mūla and Maghā constellations must be avoided and the moon must be auspiciously placed) and other later smṛtis, which it is unnecessary to dwell upon. In the later smṛtis like Laghu-Āśvalāyana III. 14-19 and in nibandhas like the Nirṇayasindhu and Dharmasindhu elaborate discussions are held about the months, tithis, week-

473. चतुर्थिप्रभृत्याषोडशीमुत्तरासुत्तर^१ शुक्लां प्रजानि श्रेयसमृतुगमन इत्युपदिशन्ति । आप. गृ. सू. 9. 1, S. B. E. vol 30 p. 268.

474. यत्तु गर्भाधानमधिकृत्य हारीतेनोक्तं चतुर्थेऽह्नि स्नातायां शुक्लासु चेति तच्चतुर्थेऽह्नि रजोनिवृत्तौ द्रष्टव्यम् । स्मृतिच० I. p. 15; एतदेवाभिप्रेत्य कात्यायनः । रजस्वला चतुर्थेऽह्नि स्नानाच्छुद्धिमवाप्नुयात् । इति, quoted in स्मृतिचन्द्रिका I. p. 15; स्नाता रजस्वला या तु चतुर्थेऽह्नि शुध्यति । कुर्याद्रजोनिवृत्तौ तु दैवपित्र्यादिकर्म च ॥ पराशर VII. 17; गर्भाधानं द्विजः कुर्याद्वत्तौ प्रथम एव हि । चतुर्थे दिवसादूर्ध्वं पुत्रार्थी दिवसे समे ॥ लक्ष्मण- III. 1.

days, nakṣatras, colour of clothes, that were deemed to be inauspicious for the first appearance of menses and about the *śāntis* (propitiatory rites) for averting their evil effects. Āp. gr., Manu (III. 48), Yāj. (I. 79), Vaik. III. 9 hold that a man desirous of male issue should cohabit on the even days from the 4th day after the appearance of menses and if he cohabits on uneven days a female child is born. Hir. gr.⁴⁷⁵ I. 7. 24. 8 (S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 199) and Bhāradvāja gr. (I. 20) prescribe that a woman in her menses who takes a bath on the 4th day should attire herself in white (or pure) clothes, should ornament herself and talk with (worthy) brāhmaṇas (only). The Vaik. (III. 9) further adds that she should anoint herself with unguents, should not converse with a woman, or a śūdra, should see no one else except her husband, since the child born becomes like the male whom a woman taking a bath after the period looks at. Śaṅkha-Likhita convey a similar eugenic suggestion,⁴⁷⁶ viz. 'Women give birth to a child similar in qualities to him on whomsoever their heart is set in their periods.'

A debatable question is whether garbhādhāna is a saṁskāra of the garbha (the child in the womb) or of the woman. Gaut. VIII. 24, Manu. I. 16, and Yāj. I. 10 indicate that it is a saṁskāra of the *garbha* and not of the woman. Viśvarūpa⁴⁷⁷ on Yāj. I. 11 expressly asserts that all saṁskāras except *Simantonmayana* have to be performed again and again (as they are the saṁskāras of the garbha), while *Simantonmayana* being a saṁskāra of the woman has to be performed only once and this opinion was in consonance with the usage in his days. Laghu-Āśvalāyana (IV. 17) also holds the same view. Medhātithi⁴⁷⁸ on Manu II. 16 says that the garbhādhāna rite with mantras was performed after marriage only once at the time of the first cohabitation according to some, while according to

475. चतुर्थ्यां स्नातां प्रयतवन्नां ब्राह्मणसंभाषां भारद्वाजश्रुत्या I 20; स्नात्वा श्वेतवस्त्राहुलेपना स्त्रीशूद्राभ्यामनभिभाष्यापरमदृष्ट्वा भर्तारं पश्येद्यस्माद्वतुस्नाता यादृशं पुरुषं पश्येत्तादृशी प्रजा भवति । वैखानसस्मार्तसूत्र III. 9.

476. यस्मिन् भावोऽर्पितः स्त्रीणां सार्वत्रिकं तच्छीलं जनयन्ति यथा नीलवृषेण नीलवृषव-
त्सप्रभवः श्वेतेन श्वेत एव जायते । शङ्खलिखितं quoted in स्मृतिच० (व्यव. p. 241) and
वि. र. p. 441.

477. प्रतिगर्भं चापसीमन्तोन्नयनाः प्रवर्तन्ते । तस्य स्त्रीसंस्कारत्वात् । ...गर्भाधानं
त्वर्थादिवर्तते । लिङ्गाच्च पुंसवनम् । ...एवं च समाचारादुग्रहः । विश्वरूप on या. I. 11.

478. गर्भाधानं च विवाहादनन्तरं प्रथमोपगमे विष्णुर्योनिं कल्पयत्विति मन्त्रवत्केषां-
चिद्विहितम् । परेषामगर्भग्रहणात्प्रत्युत । मेधा. on मनु II. 16.

others it was to be performed after every menstruation till conception. Later works like the *Mit.* (on *Yāj.* I. 11), the *Sm. C.*, the *Saṁskāratattva* (p. 909) hold that *garbhādhāna*, *pūṁsavana*⁴⁷⁹ and *simantonnayana* are *saṁskāras* of the woman and are to be performed only once and quote *Hārīta* in support. *Aparārka* holds that *simantonnayana* is performed only once at the first conception, while *pūṁsavana* is repeated at each conception. He relies on *Pār. gr.* I. 15; and the *Saṁskāra-mayūkha* and the *Saṁskāraprakāśa* (pp. 170-171) hold the same opinion. *Sm. C.* (I. p. 17) quotes a verse of *Viṣṇu* that according to some even *simantonnayana* is repeated at each conception. About the rules for women who are *rajasvalā* (in their monthly course) vide later on.

According to *Kullūka* (on *Manu* II. 27), the *Sm. C.* (I. p. 14) and other works *garbhādhāna* is not of the nature of *homa*. The *Dharmasindhu* says that when *garbhādhāna* takes place on the first appearance of menses, *homa* for *garbhādhāna* is to be performed in the *gṛhya* fire, but there is no *homa* when the cohabitation takes place on the second or later appearance of menses; that those in whose *sūtra* no *homa* is prescribed should perform the *garbhādhāna* rite on the proper day after the first appearance of menses by reciting the mantras but without *homa*. The *Saṁskāra-kaustubha* (p. 59) relying on *Gṛhyapariśiṣṭa* prescribes *homa* in which cooked food is to be offered to *Prajāpati* and seven offerings of *ājya* are to be offered in fire, three with the verses 'Viṣṇu-ronim' (*Rg.* X. 184. 1-3), three with 'nejaṁśa' (*Āp. M. P. I.* 12. 7-9) and one with *Rg.* X. 121. 10 (*prajāpate na*).

All *saṁskāras* other than *garbhādhāna* can be performed by any agnate in the absence of the husband (vide *Saṁskāra-prakāśa*⁴⁸⁰ p. 165).

479. देवलः । सङ्कृच्च संस्कृता नारी सर्वगर्भेषु संस्कृता । तेन गर्भाधानपुंसवनसीमन्तो-
जयनानि सङ्कुदेव कर्तव्यानि । संस्कारतत्त्व of रघुनन्दन (p. 909); हारीतः । सङ्कुत्संस्कृत-
संस्काराः सीमन्ते द्विजस्त्रियः । यं यं गर्भं प्रसूयन्ते स सर्वः संस्कृतो भवेत् ॥ अपराकं p. 25
and स्मृतिच० I. p. 17; vide मिता. on या. I. 11 where a full verse of देवल
is quoted, which combines the latter half of हारीत with the half verse of
देवल quoted above.

480. 'ब्रह्मपुराणम् । गर्भाधानादिसंस्कर्ता पिता श्रेष्ठतमः स्मृतः । अभावे स्वकुलीनः
स्याद् बान्धवो वाच्यगोत्रजः ॥ ... आयोवर्तसङ्कुतः स्वशास्त्री (स्वशास्त्री?) श्रेष्ठ उच्यते ।'
संस्कारप्रकाश p. 165; तत्र ब्रह्मर्षिः । पिता पितामहो भ्राता ज्ञातयो गोत्रजाग्रजाः । उपायने-
धिकारी स्यात्पूर्वाभावे परः परः ॥ पितृवोपनयेत्युत्रं तदभावे पितुः पिता । तदभावे पितृभ्राता
तदभावे तु सौदरः । इति पितामहस्मरणम् । संस्कारप्रकाश p. 407. In the निर्णयसिन्धु
(III पूर्वार्धे) the verse पिता पितामहो is ascribed to ब्रह्मर्षि.

As homa is necessary in numerous ceremonies and rites, the grhyasūtras give a description of a model homa. Therefore here also it would be well to set out the description from the Āśvalāyana⁴⁸¹ Grhyasūtra (I. 3, S. B. E. vol 29 pp. 162-163), a few important points of difference being added from other grhyasūtras and other works.

“ Now wherever (a person) intends⁴⁸² to offer a sacrifice he should besmear (with cowdung) a *sthaṇḍila* (a slightly raised square surface of sand or loose earth) of the dimension at least of an arrow on all (four) sides ; let him then draw six lines (in all) on it, one to the west (of that part of the *sthaṇḍila* on which the fire is to be placed) but turned northwards, two lines turned towards the east but separately at the two ends (of the line first drawn) ; (then he should draw) three lines in the middle (of the two) ; let him then sprinkle (the sacred *sthaṇḍila*) with water, establish the (sacred) fire (on the *sthaṇḍila*), put (two or three *samidhs*) on the fire ; then he should perform *parisamūhana* (i. e. wiping or sweeping the ground round the fire), then *paristarāṇa* (i. e. strewing *darbha* grass round) to the east, to the south, to the west, to the north (in order) ; in this way (all acts like *parisamūhana*, *paristarāṇa* &c.) should end in the north. Then silently he should sprinkle (water) round (the fire). (2) With two (*kuśa* blades used as) strainers (*pavitra*) the purifying of the *ājya* is done. (3) Having⁴⁸³ taken two *kuśa* blades with unbroken ends, which do not bear a young shoot in them, of the measure of a span, at their ends with his thumb and fourth finger, with hands turned the inside being upwards, he purifies the *ājya* (from the west) towards the east with (the words) ‘ by the urging of *Savitṛ* I purify thee with this uninjured *pavitra*, with the rays of the *Vasu* (i. e. rich or good) sun ’, once with this *mantra*, twice silently. (4) The strewing of *kuśa* grass (*paristarāṇa*) round the fire may or may not be done in the *ājya* homas (i. e. sacrifices in which clarified butter alone is to be offered into the fire). (5) So also the two *ājya* portions (may optionally be offered) in the *Pākayajñas*. (6) And (the

481. Vide Appendix for the text of आश्व. गृ. I. 3.

482. यत्र कचनान्निमुपसमावास्यन् स्वात् तत्र प्राचीर्दीचीश्च तिस्रस्त्रिंशो रेखा लिखित्वाग्निर्बोध्याग्निमुपसमिन्ध्यात् । आप. घ. सू. II. 1. 1. 13.

483. तृष्णीमाधारावाचार्याज्यभागौ जुहुयादग्नेये स्वाहा सोमाय स्वाहेति । उत्तरमाग्नेयं दक्षिणं सौम्यम् । विज्ञायते चक्षुषी वा एते यज्ञस्य यदाज्यभागौ । आश्व. गृ. I. 10. 13-15. The *ājya* to Agni is offered to the north of the fire and that to Soma to the south of it.

employment in all Pakayajñas) of the brahmā priest is optional except in the Dhanvantari sacrifice and Śūlagava sacrifice. (7) He should offer the sacrifice with the words 'to such and such a deity, svāhā'. (8) If there is no specific direction (as to the deities to whom the offerings are to be made), the deities are Agni, Indra, Prajāpati, Viśve Devas (all gods), Brahmā.⁴⁸⁴ At the end there is an offering to Agni Sviṣṭakṛt (vide Appendix under note 481 for the mantra).

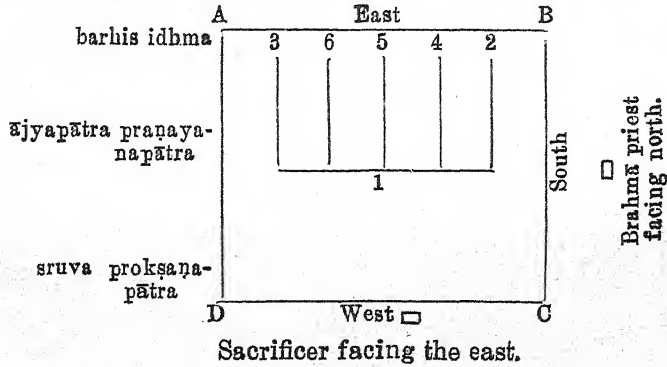
In the Śāṅkhāyana gr. I. 7 (S. B. E. vol. 29 pp. 22-31) the procedure described is more elaborate and contains some important differences. The performer (I. 7. 6-7) draws one line in the middle of the sacrificial surface from south to north and from this line only three lines are drawn upwards, one to the south of it, one in the middle, and one to the north (i. e. there are only four lines and not six as in Āśvalāyana). Further it (I. 8. 6-7) says that the seat of the brahmā priest is to the south of the sthāṇḍila and he is honoured with flowers. Śāṅkhāyana adds (I. 8. 8.) the detail that the pranīta waters are carried forward on the north side and (I. 8. 9-11) that paristarana follows after the carrying forward of the pranīta waters. It also adds (I. 8. 24-25) that waters in the sruva spoon are purified just as ājya is purified and then a portion of the water in the sruva is poured on to the pranīta water and the rest of the water in the sruva is called the prokṣaṇī water with which the *havis*, the *idhma* (fuel) and *barhis* (kuśas) are sprinkled. Śāṅkhāyana I. 9. 1 lays down that sruva spoon is the vessel in all grhya rites (and not juhū as in śrauta rites) except where a special rule to the contrary is stated. The Pār. gr. I. 1 (S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 269-270) and the Khādīra gr. I. 2 (S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 376-378) describe the model homa in a very concise manner. The Gobhila gr. (I. 1. 9-11, and I. 5. 13-20, I. 7. 9, I. 8. 21), Hir. gr. (I. 1. 9-I. 3. 7 S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 138-145) describe it at great length. The sthāṇḍila should be prepared on a level spot or on a spot that slopes towards the east or north or north-east (vide Hir. gr. I. 1. 9, S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 138). The sthāṇḍila should be raised to the height

484. In the grhya rites ordinarily no brahmā priest is present, but he is represented by a bundle of kuśa grass (50 blades). For घन्वन्तरि-यज्ञ and शूलगव *vide* respectively आश्व. वृ. I. 12. 7 and IV. 9. The deities when none are specified or indicated are different according to other sūtras e. g. भरद्वाजगृह्य states them to be अग्नि, सोम, प्रजापति, विश्वे देवाः and अग्नि स्विष्टकृत् (I. 4.)

of two or four finger breadths or as much as the sand or loose earth that one has brought will allow ; and the *sthaṇḍila* is to be a square, each side of which is given variously as being an arrow (18 *āṅgulas*) in length, or 32 finger breadths (according to Vaik.), or one *aratni* (=21 *āṅgulas* according to Baud. gr. *paribhāṣā* I. 5. 3).⁴⁸⁵

The Āp. gr. describes at length the procedure common to all homas.

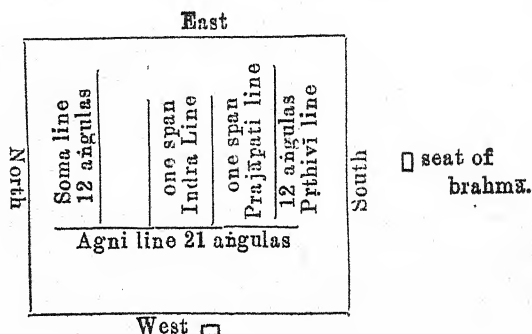
The following figures would illustrate the position of the *sthaṇḍila*, the lines drawn thereon, the position of the sacrificer and of the various articles required at the time of homa &c.



ABCD is the *sthaṇḍila* of sand or loose earth ; 1-6 are the lines drawn with a *saṁidh* on which the fire is to be placed. The above figure represents the position of all materials in an *ajya homa* (i. e. offering of clarified butter) only ; but when there is *darvihoma* (offering of boiled food in a *darvi* or ladle) the materials on the north side are *caruṣṭhālī* and *prokṣaṇapātra*, *darvi* and *sruva*, *camasa* and *ajya-pātra*, *idhma* and *barhis*

485. प्राचीनप्रवणे उद्दीचीनप्रवणे प्रायुद्धप्रवणे समे वा देशे उद्धृत्यावोक्ष्य...। हिरण्य. सू. I. 1. 9. अपरार्क quotes (p. 905) a *smṛti* that a *vitasti* is equal to 12 *āṅgulas* and *aratni* is equal to two *vitastis*, while हेमाद्रि (व्रतसङ्गट part 1 p. 51) quotes from the *Ādityapurāṇa* a passage where an *aratni* is said to be equal to 21 *āṅgulas*. In काल्यायनश्रौत 16. 8. 21 the height of a man is given as five *aratnis*.

(according to Āśvalāyana-gr̥hya-pariśiṣṭa 14) and Kumārila-kārikā I. 2. 20.)



Sacrificer facing the east.

The above is the figure of the sthāṇḍila and the lines thereon in all gr̥hya rites according to Baudhāyana-gr̥hya-saṁgraha-pariśiṣṭa (Z. D. M. G. vol. 35 p. 540) I. 52-58. The distance between the lines running towards the east is six āṅgulas and it will be noted that all the lines are only five (and not six).

The brahmā is the only priest (out of the four principal ṛtviks) in sacrifices that are offered in one fire (i. e. in the gr̥hya fire) and are called *pākayajñas* and the yajamāna (sacrificer) is himself the hotṛ priest.⁴⁸⁶ The order of the several parts in the homa is as follows:⁴⁸⁷ upalepana (smearing with cowdung), arranging of sthāṇḍila with sand or earth; drawing lines on the sthāṇḍila with a *samidh* (fuel stick), keeping the *samidh* on the lines with its end towards the east, sprinkling sthāṇḍila with water on its north or east, keeping the *samidh* (with which lines were drawn) outside the sthāṇḍila towards the north-east, then ācamana (by the sacrificer), then placing fire (either produced by attrition or brought from the house of a śrotriya or the ordinary one) on the sthāṇḍila facing the performer, placing two or three *samidhs* on the fire, keeping ready of idhma (15 *samidhs*) and a bunch of darbha grass. Then parisamūhana (wiping the ground round the fire from north-east with the hand that has water in it), then paristarana (strewing darbha grass round the altar first to the east, then to the south, then to the west and lastly to the north), then silent paryukṣana (sprinkling of water thrice round the fire, each

486. ब्रह्मैवैक ऋत्विक् । पाकयज्ञेषु स्वयं होता भवति । गोभिलगृह्य I. 1. 8-9
पाकयज्ञ इत्याख्या यः कश्चैकाग्रौ । सादिरगृह्य I. 1. 20.

487. This is based on Nārāyaṇa's com. on Āśv. gr. I. 3. 1-3.

time taking water in the hand separately), then apaṇ-prapa-yana (carrying forward the water to the north of the fire) in a vessel of bell-metal or earthenware, then ājyotpavana (purification of the clarified butter with two kuśa blades as strainers⁴⁸⁸ thrice, once with mantra and twice silently), the two āghāras and the two oblations of ājya. Then the principal oblations as directed in the various sūtras, then finally an oblation to Agni Svīṣṭakṛt. The method of offering an oblation is to repeat the mantra preceded by om and to add svāhā at the end, to put the āhuti (oblation) on fire and to say 'this is for such and such a god and not mine'.⁴⁸⁹

The Āśv. gṛhya-sūtra (I. 4) further adds that in caula, upanayana, godāna and marriage there are (as part of these ceremonies) first four oblations of clarified butter to be made with the three mantras (Rg. IX. 66. 10-12) 'Oh Angi, thou purifiest life &c' and with the one verse 'Prajāpati! no other than thou &c' (Rg. X. 121. 10) or with the vyāhrtis,⁴⁸⁹ or

488. In some works pātrāsādana is taught after paristarana and paryukṣana (vide Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. I. 3. 3.). It consists in placing the several vessels to the north of the fire on darbha grass in pairs with both hands, the faces of the vessels being turned down. Then he takes two blades (as described in Āśv. gr. I. 3. 4) as pavitras and places them in the prokṣaṇapātra the face of which is turned up and pours water in the prokṣaṇapātra and thrice purifies the water with them, then the other vessels are turned upwards, the bundle of idhma is loosened and all vessels are sprinkled with water, then the pranītapātra is placed to the west of the fire, the two pavitras (kuśa blades used as strainers) are placed inside it and water is poured into the pranītapātra and sandalwood paste is mixed with it, the vessel is raised level with one's nose and placed to the north of the fire on darbhas, and covered with darbhas. This is pātrāsādana. Nārāyaṇa mentions also other acts not specified by Āśvalāyana which may be done even by a person following that sūtra viz. carrying a firebrand (burning blade of darbha) round the clarified butter and cleansing of *śruc* and *śruva*, and throwing of the rope that tied together idhma into the fire at the end of the oblation to Svīṣṭakṛt.

489. In offering an oblation to Dhātṛ one would say 'ओं धाता ददातु नो रयिमीज्ञानो जगतस्पतिः । स नः पूर्वेषु वाचनत् । स्वाहा । धाव इदं न मम'. The four oblations with the vyāhrtis would be सुः स्वाहा, सुवः स्वाहा, स्वः स्वाहा, सुर्वः स्वः स्वाहा. Āghāra consists in pouring in a continuous stream clarified butter for Prajāpati on the fire from the north-west to the south-east once and then from the south-west to the north-east for Indra. Vide Āp. śr. sūtra II. 12. 7 and II. 14. 1 and Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. I. 10. 13. For ājyabhāga see note 483.

according to some teachers with a combination (of the ṛk verses and vyāhrtis),⁴⁹⁰ while according to others there are no such special oblations.⁴⁹¹

In modern times, after the sthaṇḍila is sprinkled with water, fire is established on it under various names depending on the rite to be performed e. g. in upanayana and marriage respectively the fire is called⁴⁹² 'Samudbhava' and 'Yojaka'. Then fuel sticks already sprinkled with holy water are placed on the fire and it is fanned into a flame and prayer is offered to it in the words 'agne Vaiśvānara Śaṇḍilya meṣadhvaja mama sammukho varado bhava'. Then follow parisamūhana and other acts stated above.

Just as homa is required in most grhya rites there are certain matters common to almost all rites. One is that in all saṁskāras one has to feed brāhmanas learned in the Vedas.⁴⁹³ All rites begin with ācamana by the performer, prāṇāyāma by him, reference to the deśa (place) and kāla (time) and a saṁkalpa (a declaration of what rite he is performing and for what purpose). After these, according to medieval works, follow in all auspicious rites the worship of Gaṇapati, puṇyāhavācana, the worship of Mātṛs (mother goddesses) and Nāndīśāradha. According to some there is only one saṁkalpa for all these; according to others there is a separate saṁkalpa for each of puṇyāhavācana, mātṛkāpūjana and Nāndīśāradha. In all auspicious rites the performer takes a bath first, ties his topknot, has a piece of ground coudunged and lines with coloured materials are drawn on a portion of the ground, two auspicious *kalaśas* (jars) filled with water are placed on such ornamented ground with their mouths covered with a pot, all articles necessary for worship are placed to the north of the spot, two

490. i. e. there will be eight oblations (4 with ṛks and 4 with vyāhrtis).

491. i. e. there are no oblations with the 4 verses nor with the four vyāhrtis, but oblations will have to be offered to those deities that are prescribed as the deities where no special rule exists (vide Āśv. gr. 1. 3. 8 set out above at p. 208).

492. Vide सं. र. नर. pp. 58-59 where these names of the fires in the several saṁskāras and rites are set out. The *Dānakriyākaumudī* (pp. 205-206) quotes from *Kapila Pāñcarātra* over 30 names of the fires kindled in the several rites and ceremonies.

493. शुचीष्मन्ववतः सर्वकृत्येषु भोजयेत् । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 15. 9 ; यद्वाह कात्यायनः । यर्माधानादिसर्वेषु ब्राह्मणान् भोजयेद्वा । अपराकं p. 32.

wooden low stools or planks are arranged to the west of the spot so decorated, the performer sits on one plank facing the east, his wife sits to his right and if the ceremony is meant for his son, the latter sits to the right of the wife; the brāhmanas are seated a little away to the right of the wife, facing the north and the performer sips water (takes ācamana). Except⁴⁹⁴ where a religious rite is to be performed on a fixed day (e. g. anniversary śrāddha &c.) all samskāras and other auspicious rites are to be performed at certain auspicious times only.

Gaṇapatipūjana:—This consists in inviting the presence of the elephant-faced god Gaṇeśa on a betelnut placed in a handful of husked rice. The word Gaṇapati is used in the R̥gveda as an attribute of Brahmanaspati (the lord of prayer or holy lore). The well-known mantra ('gaṇānām tvā gaṇapatim havāmahe' R̥g. II. 23. 1) which is used to invoke Gaṇeśa is addressed to Brahmanaspati. Indra is addressed as Gaṇapati in R̥g. X. 112. 9. In the Tai. S. IV. 1. 2. 2 and Vāj. S. paśus (and the horse specially) are said to be the Gaṇapatya of Rudra. The Ait. Br. IV. 4⁴⁹⁵ expressly says that the mantra 'gaṇānām tvā' is addressed to Brahmanaspati. In the Vāj. S. 16. 25 we have the plural (Gaṇapatibhyaśca vo namo') and in 22. 30 we have the singular 'Gaṇapataye svāhā'. The peculiar features of Gaṇeśa as described in the medieval works, viz. the head of an elephant, pot belly, mouse as vāhana (conveyance) are entirely wanting in the Vedic literature. In Vāj. S. III. 57 the mouse⁴⁹⁶ is said to be the paśu (animal to be offered to) of Rudra. In the Tai. Ār. (X. 15) there is a verse⁴⁹⁷ 'We contemplate Vakratuṇḍa, therefore may the tusked (god) impel us'. In the Gṛhya and Dharma sūtras there is no reference to the worship of Gaṇeśa at the beginning of all auspicious rites. That is comparatively a later cult. In the Baud. Dh. S. (II. 5. 83-90, S. B. E. vol. 14. p. 254) the Devatarpana includes the propitiation of Vighna, Vināyaka, Vira, Sthūla, Varada, Hastimukha,

494. उदगयने आपूर्यमाणपक्षे कल्याणे नक्षत्रे चैलकर्मोपनयनगोदानविवाहाः।
आश्व. गृ. सू. I. 4. 1; भारद्वाज I. 1. 'आपूर्यमाणपक्षे पुण्ये नक्षत्रे विशेषेण पुनामधेये'

495. गणानां त्वा गणपतिं हवामहे इति ब्राह्मणस्पत्यं ब्रह्म वै बृहस्पतिर्ब्रह्मणैवेनं तद्
मिषज्यति। ऐ. ब्रा. IV. 4.

496. एष ते रुद्र भागः सह स्वस्त्राभिकया तं जुषस्व स्वाहैष ते रुद्र भाग आहुस्ते पशूः।
वाज. सं. III. 57; vide also तै. सं. I. 8. 6. 1.

497. तत्पुरुषाय विद्महे वक्रतुण्डाय धीमहि। तन्नो दन्तिः (दन्ती?) प्रचोदयात् ॥ तै.
आ. X. 1.

Vakratuṇḍa, Ekadanta and Lambodara. But this part of the Baud. Dh. S. is of doubtful authenticity. All the above are the appellations of Vināyaka (vide Baud. grhya-śeṣasūtra III. 10. 6). In the Mānava grhya II. 14 it is said that the Vināyakas are four viz. Śālakataṅkata, Kūṣmāṇḍarājaputra, Usmita and Devayajana. They are evil spirits and people when seized by them have bad dreams and see in them inauspicious sights such as shaved persons, persons with matted hair or wearing yellowish garments, camels, hogs, asses, cāṇḍālas. When seized by them, princes, though capable, do not get their kingdoms; maidens, though endowed with all accomplishments, cannot secure husbands; married women have no children or even virtuous wives lose their children in infancy; husbandmen lose their crops &c. The Mānavagrhya then prescribes propitiatory rites to remove the effects of Vināyaka seizure. The Baijavāpagrhya (quoted by Aparārka p. 563 on Yāj. I. 275) says⁴⁹⁸ that there are four Vināyakas, Mita, Sammita, Śālakataṅkata and Kūṣmāṇḍarājaputra and describes seizure by them and its effects in the same way as the Mānavagrhya. These two show the first stage in the development of the cult of Vināyaka. Vināyakas are at this stage malevolent spirits who cause dangers and obstacles of various kinds. In this cult various elements from the terrific aspects of Rudra were probably first drawn upon and amalgamated with other elements drawn from aboriginal cults. The next stage is indicated by the Yāj. smṛti (I. 271-294). Here Vināyaka (I. 271) is said to be one appointed by Brahmā and Rudra to the over-lordship of the Gaṇas, he is represented not only as causing obstacles, but also as bringing success in the actions and rites undertaken by men. Yāj. enumerates the results of the seizure by Vināyaka in the same way as the Mānavagrhya. Yāj. I. 285 says that Mita, Sammita, Śālakataṅkata and Kūṣmāṇḍarājaputra are the four names⁴⁹⁹ of the one Vināyaka and that Ambikā is the mother of Vināyaka. It is noteworthy that Yāj. does not

498. चत्वारः खलु विनायका भवन्ति । मितश्च संमितश्च शालकटङ्कटश्च कूष्माण्ड-
राजदुग्धश्चेति । वैजवाप्ये q. in अपरांर्क p. 563.

499. Though Viśvarūpa and Aparārka take these to be four, it is curious that the Mit. makes them to be six (viz. Śāla and Kataṅkata as distinct and so also Kūṣmāṇḍa and Rājaputra). It is remarkable that Kṣīra on Amarakośa expressly says that Heramba is a Deśya word. This adds some weight to the theory that Gaṇeśa was taken over into the Vedic pantheon from some exotic tribe and affiliated to Rudra (Śiva).

employ any one of the well-known epithets of Vināyaka, viz. Ekadanta, Heramba, Gaṇānana, Lambodara &c. The Baud. gr. śeṣasūtra III. 10 prescribes a somewhat different procedure for propitiating Vināyaka and styles him 'the lord of bhūtas', and also 'hastimukha' and 'vighneśvara' and prescribes the offerings of *apūpa* and *modaka* to him. Thus Baudhāyana is nearer to the medieval conception of Gaṇeśa than even Yājñavalkya. The Ādiparva makes Gaṇeśa write the Mahābhārata to the dictation of Vyāsa; but this part is apocryphal as many mss. altogether omit this episode (*vide* J. R. A. S. for 1898 pp. 380-384, Winternitz). The other references in Vanaparva 65. 23 and Anuśāsana 150. 25 bear affinity to the description of Vināyaka in the Mānavagṛhya.⁵⁰⁰

The Gobhilasmr̥ti (in verse) I. 13 prescribes that at the beginning of all rites, the Mātṛs together with Gaṇādhipa (the lord of Gaṇas) should be worshipped. The well-known characteristics of Gaṇeśa and his worship had become fixed before the 5th or 6th century of the Christian era. Kālidāsa does not refer to Gaṇeśa. The Gāthāsaptasatī has references to Gaṇeśa. In that work (IV. 72) an image of Gaṇeśa is referred to as made use of as a pillow and the tip of his trunk is mentioned in V. 3. In Codrington's 'Ancient India' plate XXXIX there is an image of Gaṇeśa referable to about 500 A. D. Vide Dr. Bhandarkar in 'Vaiṣṇavism and Śaivism' p. 147. Bāṇa in his Harṣacarita (IV Ucchvāsa verse 2) speaks of the large tusk of Gaṇādhipa and in describing Bhairavācārya (Harṣacarita III) associates Vināyaka with obstacles and learning and also indicates that he had the head of an elephant. In the Vāmanapurāṇa (chap. 54) there is a fantastic legend about the birth of Vināyaka.

The Mahāvīracarita (II. 38) speaks of the tusk of Heramba. The Matsyapurāṇa (chap. 260. 52-55) describes how the images of Vināyaka are to be made. Aparārka (p. 343) quotes a passage from the Matsyapurāṇa (289.7) on the mahādāna called Mahābhūtaghaṭa, in which it is said that Vināyaka should be shown as riding a mouse. The Kṛtyaratnākara p. 271 quotes a passage from the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa for the worship of Gaṇeśa on the 4th day of Bhādrapada. Vide Agnipurāṇa chap. 71 and 313.

500. न पूजा विघ्नकर्तृणामथवा प्रथमं कृता । वनपर्व 65. 23; ईश्वराः सर्वलोकानां
गणेश्वरविनायकाः । अद्भुतासन 150. 25.

In modern times a verse⁵⁰¹ is repeated in which the shrines of the eight Vināyakas in the Deccan are enumerated.

Among the earliest epigraphic references to Gaṇapati is the one in the Nidhanpur plate of Bhāskarvarman (middle of 7th century). Vide E. I. Vol. XII. p. 73.⁵⁰²

The Gaṇapatipūjāna consists in the performer repeating the mantra Rg. II. 23. 1 ('gaṇānām tvā Gaṇapatim') as a prayer and then bowing to Gaṇeśa with the words 'Om Mahā-gaṇapataye namo namaḥ nirvighnam kuru' (salutations to the great Gaṇapati, make (this rite) free from obstacles'.

Punyāhavācana :—Although many elaborate descriptions of this are given in later digests like the Saṃskāraratnamālā, this was originally in ancient times a very simple and brief rite. The Ap. Dh. S. (I. 4. 13. 8) says that in ordinary life in all auspicious rites (such as marriage) all sentences begin with 'Om' as in saying 'punyāham', 'svasti', and 'ṛddhim'. The performer of a religious rite honours the assembled brāhmaṇas with *gandha* (sandalwood paste), flowers and *tāmbūla* (betel leaves) and requests with folded hands 'may you declare the day to be auspicious for such and such a ceremony which I, by name so and so, am⁵⁰³ about to perform' and then the brāhmaṇas

501. स्वस्ति श्रीगणनायको गजसुखो मोरेश्वरे सिद्धिदे बह्मलो मुरुडे विनायक इति
ख्यातो महे ओझरे। विज्ञेशः खलु रांजणे गणपतिश्चिन्तामणिस्थेऽरे लेण्याद्री गिरिजात्मजः
शुभदिने कुर्यात्सदा मङ्गलम् ॥ The eight places are indicated by thick type.
मोरेश्वर is मोरगांव near Jejuri, सिद्धिदे refers to सिद्धदेक (about 30 miles
from Dhond), महे refers to महेग्राम (about 4 miles from Khopoli). मुरुड
is the capital of the Siddhis on the west coast south of Bombay. शेजर is 12
miles from Poona and Leण्याद्री is three miles from Junnar. रांजणा-
गाव is 30 miles from Poona. Besides these there are famous Gaṇapati
shrines at Chinchwad and at Puḷem near Ratnagiri on the sea coast.
Ojhar (where there is the shrine of Vighneśvara) is 28 miles from Poona
and 8 miles from Junnar. In 15 Bom. 612 a scheme was framed
by the Bombay High Court for the famous shrine of Maṅgalamūrti at
Chinchwad near Poona which has under its jurisdiction the shrines at
Morgaon, Theur and Siddhateka (p. 619).

502. गन्धर्ववती तस्माद्गणपतिमिव दानवर्षणमजस्रम् । गणपतिमगणितगुणगणमसूत
कलिहानये तनयम् ॥ E. I. XII. p. 73. दान means gift as well ichor.

503. In स्वस्तिवाचन the performer says 'असुकनाम्नः सम करिष्यमाणविवा-
हाख्याय कर्मणे स्वस्ति भवन्तो ब्रुवन्तु' and the brāhmaṇas reply 'ओं स्वस्ति', the
performer says 'असुकनाम्नः सम करिष्यमाणविवाहाख्याय कर्मणः पुण्याहं भवन्तो
ब्रुवन्तु', the brāhmaṇas reply 'ओं पुण्याहम्', the performer says 'असुकनाम्नः ...
कर्मणः कर्द्धि भवन्तो ब्रुवन्तु' and the brāhmaṇas respond 'ओं कर्द्धताम् or 'ओं कर्म
कर्द्धताम् (or कर्द्धताम्)'. पुण्याहवाचनं सर्वं ब्राह्मणस्य विधीयते । तदेव च निरोद्धारं
कुर्यात्कत्रियवेद्ययोः ॥ यम quoted in संस्काररत्नमाला p. 29.

respond by saying 'Om, may it be auspicious'. Each of these three sentences (with svasti, puṇyāham and rddhim) is to be repeated thrice according to Baud. gr. śeṣa-sūtra I. 10. A verse of Yama says that the brāhmaṇas should respond without the syllable 'om' when the performer of the rite is a kṣatriya or a vaiśya.

Mātrkāpūṇa :—The Mātr̥s (the Mother Goddesses) do not figure in the sūtras. But that their worship was prevalent certainly in the first centuries of the Christian era throughout India can be proved from several sources. In the drama *Mṛcchakaṭika* (I) Cārudatta asks his friend Maitreya to offer *balī* to the Mātr̥s. The *Gobhila-smṛti*⁵⁰⁴ (in verse I. 11-12) names 14 māt̥r̥s viz. Gaurī, Padmā, Śacī, Medhā, Śavitrī, Vijayā, Jayā, Devasenā, Svadhā, Svāhā, Dhṛtī, Puṣṭi, Tuṣṭi and one's own deity (*abhiṣṭa-devatā*). In the *Mārkaṇḍeya* (chap. 88. 11-20 and 38) seven māt̥r̥s have been named as *Mātr̥gaṇa*. The *Matsyapurāṇa* (chap. 179. 9-32) names over a hundred mother goddesses (like *Māheśvarī*, *Brāhmī*, *Kaumārī*, *Cāmūṇḍā*), while in chap. 261 (24-36), there is a description of the images of some of the māt̥r̥s like *Brahmāṇī* &c. The *Bṛhat-Saṃhitā* of Varāhamihira (chap. 58. 56) refers to the images of the mother goddesses. Bāṇa in his *Kādambarī* frequently refers to the māt̥r̥s, to their worship and to dilapidated temples of these goddesses.⁵⁰⁵ The *Kṛtyaratnākara* quotes a passage from the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa* at p. 261 about the images of the seven māt̥r̥s and pp. 305 and 307 quote the *Devīpurāṇa* about the worship of māt̥r̥s and the flowers dear to them. The worship of māt̥r̥s is mentioned in the Bihar Stone Pillar Inscription of Skandagupta (Gupta Inscriptions pp. 47, 49). The *Čalukyas* are often described as 'cherished by the seven māt̥r̥s' (I. A. vol. VI. p. 73 in 535 *śake* and E. I. vol. IX. p. 100 in 660 A. D.). The *Kadambas* are described as meditating on *Kārtikeya-śvāmī* and on the group of māt̥r̥s (I. A. vol. VI. p. 25)⁵⁰⁶. Similarly a

504. These verses are quoted in the *सुवतिच०* (आहू p. 503) and अपरार्क p. 517. The seven in the *मार्कण्डेय* are ब्रह्माणी, माहेस्वरी, कौमारी, वाराही, नारसिंही, वैष्णवी, ऐन्द्री.

505. 'अभिनवलिखितमातृपदपूजाव्यग्रथाजीजनं' (सुविकाग्रहं) in para 64, पूर्वभाग of कादम्बरी; 'अभ्यर्णतया च कैलासस्य स्नानागतमातृमण्डलपदपङ्क्तिः कष्टद्राङ्गितम्' para 130 कादम्बरी (पूर्वभाग); 'असङ्कुत्सन्नदेवमातृग्रहवास्यक्षनस्त्रजर्जरितकपोलेन (जरद्वन्द्विदधासिकेण) para 216 कादम्बरी (पूर्वभाग).

506. 'स्वामिमहसेनमातृगणानुध्यातानां कदम्बानाम्' I. A. vol. VI. p. 25. Fleet's translation 'who meditate on the assemblage of the mothers of Śvāmī Kārtikeya' is not accurate.

temple to the Mātṛs is said to have been erected by Mayūrākṣa, the minister of Viśvavarman in 480 of the Mālava Era i. e. 423-24 A. D. (Gupta Inscriptions p. 74).

Whence the cult of mātṛs, which was not described in the Grhyasūtras, was derived it is difficult to say. Sir John Marshall in his famous work on Mohenjo-Daro (vol. I. p. VII and pp. 49-52 and plates XII, XCIV and XCV) shows how figurines of mother goddesses are common at Mohenjo-Daro. That shows that the cult prevailed in the remotest antiquity and was probably taken up by the followers of the Vedic religion and affiliated to the worship of Durgā, the spouse of Śiva. In Rg. IX. 102. 4 ⁵⁰⁷ the seven mothers are said to regulate soma when it is being prepared (the seven mothers are probably the seven metres or the seven rivers).

Nāndīśrāddha :—This will be dealt with under śrāddhas later on.

Puṁsavana :—This rite is so called because in virtue of it a male is born. ⁵⁰⁸ The word 'puṁsavana' occurs in the Atharva-veda VI. 11. 1 where ⁵⁰⁹ it appears to be used literally (in the sense of 'giving birth to a male child') 'The Āsvattha tree is on top of the Śāmi tree, there the birth of a male has been effected'. The Āśv. gr. I. 13. 2-7 describes the rite as follows: 'he should in the third month of pregnancy, under the constellation Tīṣya (i. e. Puṣya) give (thrice) to eat to the wife, after she has fasted, (on the preceding Punarvasu constellation) in the curds of a cow which has a calf of the same colour (with the cow) two beans and one grain of barley for each handful of curds. On his asking (the woman) ' what dost thou drink ? what dost thou drink ? ', she should thrice reply ' puṁsavana ', (generation of a male), ' puṁsavana '. In this way (he) should make her take three handfuls (of curds with two beans and barley).' ⁵¹⁰

There is some difference of view as to details. The Āp. gr., Hir. gr. and Bhāradvāja gr. place puṁsavana after simanton-

507. जज्ञानं सप्त मातरो वेधामशासत श्रिये । ऋ. IX. 102. 4.

508. पुंसवनमिति कर्मनामधेयं येन कर्मणा निमित्तेन गर्भिणी पुंसांसमेव सृते तत्पुंसवनम् । सुदर्शन on आप. गृ. 14. 9 ; तच्च पुमाच्च सूयतेनेन कर्मणि ति व्युत्पत्त्या गर्भस्य पुंरूपता-पादकः कर्मविशेषः । शौनकोपि । पुमाच्च प्रसूयते येन तत्पुंसवनमीरितम् ॥ इति । संस्कार-प्रकाश pp. 166-167.

509. शमीमन्थत्य आरुहस्तत्र पुंसवनं कृतम् । अथर्व VI. 11. 1.

510. Vide Appendix for text.

nayana and Āp. says it may be performed when pregnancy becomes apparent. Instead of two beans and a barley⁵¹¹ grain in curds, he requires the bringing of a shoot of the branch of a *nyagrodha* tree which (tree) points eastward or northward and which has two (fruits that look like) testicles and the pounding of the shoot and fruits by a girl who has not attained puberty between two upper stones of (two mills) with water. He then prescribes that the wife should lie down on her back to the west of the fire herself facing the east and that the husband should insert in her right nostril the pounded substance with his thumb with the formula (pūmsavanam-asi) found in Āp. M. P. (II. 11. 14). Śaṅ. gr. (I. 20, S. B. E. vol. 29. p. 46) says that the rite may be performed on Tīṣya or Śrāvaṇa, while the Bhāradvāja gr. (I. 22) says that it may be performed on Tīṣya or Hasta or Anurādhā or Uttarā or Proṣṭhapadā; Pāraskara and Baijavāpa say it should be performed when the moon is in conjunction with a male nakṣatra.⁵¹² Pār. gr. I. 14 and Jātukarṇya (Saṁ. Pr. p. 167) and Baijavāpa (*ibid.*) say that the rite should be performed in the 2nd or 3rd month of pregnancy, Āsv., Hir., Śaṅ., Gobhila, Khādīra prescribe the third month. Yāj. I. 11, Pār. gr. (I. 14), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 27. 2 and Brhaspati (quoted in the Sm. C.) say that pūmsavana should be performed before the foetus begins to move or throb in the womb. In the Kāthaka gr. 32. 2 the proper time is said to be when the greater number of months of pregnancy are past (i. e. after the 5th) and the Mānava gr. says that it should be performed in the 8th month of pregnancy. Dēvapāla (com. of Kāthaka gr.) says the usage

511. Nārāyaṇa says that in this rite one has to perform at first the sthālīpāka intended for Prajāpati up to the offering of the two ājya-bhāgas and then one should perform what is specially prescribed here. He further notes that the curds may be of a cow the calf of which is of a different colour, if one of the same colour could not be had. The curds are to be poured from the vessel of curds on to the woman's hand thrice, she is to lick the curds every time with two beans and a grain of barley; the beans and barley grain are suggestive. This is made clear by Āp. gr. 14. 10 न्यग्रोधस्य वा माच्युदीची वा शाखा वतः सवृषणं छुङ्गमाहृत्य; वेक्षान्त III. 11 also has 'अग्नेरपरस्यामासीनाया वृषोसीति सर्पपनिश्रितान्यवानाण्डौ स्य इति दद्यादलाभे माषधान्यौ प्रतिनिधि स्याताम्.'

512. According to a verse quoted in Sm. C. the male nakṣatras are Hasta, Mūla, Śrāvaṇa, Punarvasu, Mṛgashīras and Puṣya; the Saṁskāra-mayūkha adds that the Nārādīya mentions Rohiṇī, Pūrvābhādrapadā and Uttarābhādrapadā also as male nakṣatras and that Vasiṣṭha regards Svāti, Anurādhā and Āśvinī also as male nakṣatras. मातृवृत्त on हिरण्य. सू. I. 1. 5 says 'अश्वयुक् पुनर्वसु तिष्यो हस्तः शतभिषक् भोष्टपदा इति पुंनमधेयानि नक्षत्राणि.'

of *śiṣṭas* is to perform it in the 8th month and Brahmbala (another com.) says that the usage is to perform it in the 7th or 8th month of pregnancy. Most of the *gr̥hyasūtras* refer to the pounding of the shoot⁵¹³ of the *Nyagrodha* tree (or some other plant) and inserting the pounded substance in the wife's right nostril. The mantras repeated when inserting the substance in her nostril are different according to most *sūtras*. *Sāṅkhāyana* (S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 46) prescribes the four verses Rg. I. 1. 3, III. 4. 9., V. 37. 2 and IX 3. 9. with *svāhā* at the end of each verse. *Pāraskara* (S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 292) prescribes Vāj. S. XIII. 4 (Rg. X. 121. 1) and XXXI. 17; *Khādira gr̥.* (S. B. E. vol. 29. p. 394) mentions Mantra-*Brāhmaṇa* I. 4. 8, the *Kāṭhaka gr̥.* quotes *Kāṭhaka Samhitā*. The several *sūtras* of the Black *Yajurveda* show the greatest divergence among themselves.

It would be clear that the *pūmsavana* rite has several elements, religious (*homa* and son's importance from ancient times), symbolical or suggestive (the drinking of curds with beans and grain of barley) and medical (inserting some substance in the woman's nostrils). For what purpose the placing of the bile of a tortoise on the woman's lap was prescribed by *Pāraskara* alone (I. 14) it is difficult to say.

Later works like the *Saṃskāraratnamālā* prescribe a *homa* for *pūmsavana* also and remark that when in the absence of the husband, the husband's brother or other relative performs the rite, it should be performed in ordinary kitchen fire (p. 815). This latter rule applies to *Śimantonnayana* also.

Anavalobhana or *Garbhārakṣaṇa*:—This rite was apparently part of *Pūmsavana*. *Āśv. gr̥.* as already said, separately mentions *pūmsavana* and *anavalobhana* as referred to in the *Upaniṣad*. The *Baijavāpa gr̥.* (quoted in the *Saṃskāraprakāśa* p. 171) says 'He performs the *pūmsavana* and *anavalobhana* in the fortnight of the waxing moon on an auspicious day when the moon is in conjunction with a *nakṣatra* (deemed to be) a male'. This shows that both were performed on the same day. Another *sūtra* of *Baijavāpa* quoted in the *Saṃskāramayūkha*⁵¹⁴ says that the two are to be performed in the 2nd or 3rd month

513. According to the *Kāṭhaka gr̥.* the pounding is to be done by a virgin or a *brahmācārīn* or by a chaste *brāhmaṇa* woman.

514. वैजवाप्यश्लोके । अथ पुंसवनानवलोभने करोति मासि द्वितीये वा तृतीये वा । इदं च पुंसवनादिन एव तदुत्तरं कार्यम् । ... इदमपि न अवलुप्यते गर्भाभेनेति । व्युत्पत्त्या गर्भाविनाशफलकं च न तस्य रूपं कर्म तस्य नामधेयम् । भकारश्चान्वसः । संस्कारमयूख

of pregnancy. This rite is so called because by virtue of its performance the foetus does not fall out or is not destroyed (i. e. it is really *anavalopana* from the root *lup* with *ava*). Āśv. gr. (I. 13. 5-7) describes it as follows: He then inserts in her right nostril in the shade of a round apartment the (sap) of an herb which is not faded;⁵¹⁵ according to some (teachers), with the Prajāvat and Jīva-putra mantras. Having offered a sacrifice of cooked food to Prajāpati he should touch the region of her heart with the verse 'Oh thou whose hair is well parted, what is hidden in thy heart, in Prajāpati, that I understand, (mayst thou understand) me who know that; may not injury to the son be my lot'.

It will be seen that the inserting of *dūrvārasa* in the woman's nostril, touching her heart and prayers to the gods for the safety of the foetus are the principal features of this rite in Āśv.

According to Śaunaka-kārikā (Ms. in Bombay University Library, folio 13a) that rite is called anavalobhana whereby the foetus remains undisturbed or does not fall out.⁵¹⁶ According to the Smṛtyarthasāra it is to be performed in the fourth month. According to Laghu-Āśvalāyana IV. 1-2 anavalobhana and simantonnayana were to be performed in the 4th, 6th or 8th month of pregnancy and verses 6-7 give the same details as in Āśv. gr.

The Śaṅ. gr. (I. 21. 1-3, S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 47) speaks of a ceremony called Garbharakṣaṇa (protection of the foetus) : " In the fourth month the garbharakṣaṇa; offering six oblations into fire from a mess of cooked food with the six verses of the hymn ' brahmaṇāgniḥ '⁵¹⁷ (Rg. X. 162) with svāhā uttered at the end of each verse, with the verses ' from thy eyes, thy nose ' (Rg. X. 163. 1-6), besmearing her limbs with clarified butter at each verse. "

515. Nārāyaṇa explains that the herb is *dūrvā* according to usage. The sap is put in the nostril silently or to the accompaniment of two mantras, which are respectively of the sage Prajāvat and Jīva-putra. They are : आ ते गर्भो योनिमैतु हुमात् वाण द्वेष्टुधिम् । आ वीरो जायतां पुत्रस्ते दश-
मास्यः ॥ अग्निरैतु प्रथमो देवतानां सोस्यै प्रजां सुञ्जतु सृष्ट्युपाशात् । तदयं राजा वरुणोऽमुमन्यतां
ययेयं स्त्री पौत्रमयं न रोदात् ॥ इति. The first is practically the same as अथर्ववेद
III. 23. 2; the 2nd is आप. स. पा. I. 4. 7.

516. न सुम्येन सवेयेन तत्कर्मानवलोभनम् । शौनकाकारिका.

517. The Anukramanī says that the hymn Rg. X. 162 is to be repeated when there is abortion and on X. 163 that it is meant for removal of disease (यक्ष्मनाशन).

This seems to be another version of anavalobhana.

According to Āśv. gr. kārīkās of Kumārila (I. 6. 5) this rite is to be repeated on every conception. Most other writers would hold that like pūṁsavana it is to be performed only once.

Simantonnayana:—This is treated in the following gr. sūtras: Āśv. I. 14. 1-9; Śāh. I. 22, Āp. 14. 1-8, Hir. II. 1, Baud. I. 10, Bhāradvāja I. 21, Gobhila II. 7. 1-12, Khādīra II. 2. 24-28, Pār. I. 15, Kāthaka 31. 1-5, Vaikhāṇasa III. 12.

This word literally means 'parting of the hair (of a woman) upwards.' Yāj. (I. 11), Veda-Vyāsa (I. 18) call this saṁskāra simply 'śimanta', while Gobhila (II. 7. 1), Mānava gr. (I. 12. 2), Kāthaka gr. (31. 1) call it śimantakarāṇa. Āp. gr. and Bhāradvāja gr. (I. 21) describe it before pūṁsavana. The Āśv. gr. (I. 14. 1-9) describes it as follows: " In the fourth month of pregnancy the Simantonnayana (should be performed). In the fortnight of the waxing moon, when the moon may be in conjunction with a nakṣatra that is (regarded as) male (or the name of which is of the masculine gender, according to Nārāyaṇa); then he establishes fire (i. e. performs the details of homa up to offering of *ājyabhāgas*) and having spread to the west of the fire a bull's hide with its neck to the east and the hair outside, he makes eight oblations (of ājya, clarified butter), while his wife sits on it (hide) and takes hold (of his hand), with the two (verses) ' may Dhātṛ give to his worshipper ' (Atharvaveda VII. 17. 2-3), with the two verses, ' I invoke Rākā ' (Ṛg. II. 32. 4-5), with the three (verses) called ' nejameṣa ' (a khilasūkta after Ṛg. X. 184 and Āp. M. P. I. 12. 7-9) and with the verse ' Oh Prajāpati, no one other than you ' (Ṛg. X. 121. 10). He then three times parts her hair upwards (beginning from the front and proceeding backwards) with a bunch of an even number of unripe fruits with a porcupine quill that has three white spots ⁵¹⁸ (or rings) and with three bunches of kuśa grass, with the words ' bhūr, bhuvaḥ, svar, om ' or he does so four times. He gives orders to two lute players ' sing (praise of) king soma. ' (They sing this gāthā) ' may soma, our king, bless the human race.

518. The porcupine quill with three white spots is mentioned even in the Tai. Br. as an auspicious thing. ' He should shave his head with a porcupine quill with three white spots since in the case of the gods three are auspicious things, viz. the three metres, the three savanas, these three worlds (I. 5. 6.) ' *त्रेण्या शल्लया निवर्तयेत् । त्रीणि वै देवानामुद्दानि त्रीणि छन्दांसि त्रीणि सवनानि त्रय इमे लोकाः* '. Vide Appendix for the text of Āśv. gr. I. 14. 1-9.

Fixed is the wheel (dominion) of this (river); (here they take the name in the vocative) of the river near which they dwell. And let them do whatever aged brāhmaṇa women whose husbands and children are alive direct. A bull is the fee (for the sacrifice)". In the Āp. mantrapāṭha thirteen verses are devoted to this saṁskāra in all, some of which occur in the Rg., the Atharvaveda and Tai. S.

We have here first the religious part of homa and oblations with mantras. But this rite is mainly of a social and festival nature intended to keep the pregnant woman in good cheer. The Saṁskāraprakāśa (pp. 172-173) quotes some verses from an Āśvalāyana stating that this rite serves the purpose of driving certain female goblins that thirst for the destruction of the foetus; the parting of the hair by the husband with the quill, bunch of unripe fruits and *darbhās* and tying a garland round her neck, giving her boiled rice mixed with mudga and ghee and asking lute players to sing indicate its festive character. There is a great divergence among the gr̥hya sūtras about the several details of this saṁskāra and the order in which they take place. The Sm. C. after pointing out a few divergences remarks that one should follow the rules of one's own gr̥hya sūtra. A few important divergences are pointed out below. This saṁskāra was to be performed in the 3rd month according to Kāṭhaka gr., in 3rd, 6th or 8th according to the Mānava; in the 4th month according to Āśv., Āp., Hir. (II. 1), in 4th or 6th according to Gobhila (II. 7. 2) and in the 4th, 6th or 8th according to Khādīra, in 6th or 8th according to Pāraskara, Yāj. (I. 11), Viṣṇu Dh. S. (27. 3), Śaṅkha; in the 7th according to Śān. gr. (I. 22. 1), in the 8th according to Vaik. and Veda-Vyāsa (I. 18). Śaṅkha as quoted in the Smṛticandrikā (I. p. 17) says that it should be performed on the foetus beginning to move and up to the time of delivery. Āśv., Śān. and Hir. require that the moon must be in conjunction with a male nakṣatra. Hir. gr. alone prescribes that the saṁskāra should take place in a round apartment. It is remarkable that Āśv. alone requires that the woman should be seated on a bull's hide, which shows that till his day such a hide was not treated (as is done in modern times) as a very unholy thing. Pāraskara makes her sit on a soft chair or seat, while Gobhila prescribes a seat of northward pointed *darbhās*. There is great divergence as to the number of oblations and the verses to be repeated even in sūtras of the same Veda, e. g. Āśvalāyana prescribes eight oblations and eight mantras, but

Śāṅkhāyana prescribes only six (by omitting the verses Rg. II. 32. 4-5). Gobhila, Khādīra, Bhāradvāja, Pāraskara and Śāṅkhāyana prescribe the preparation of boiled rice with ghee thereon or sesame and the first three of these say that the woman should be asked to look at the ghee on the mass of rice and be questioned 'what do you see' and she should be made to reply 'I see progeny' (Bhāradvāja has the reply 'sons and cattle'). Almost all grhya sūtras agree that in parting the hair the husband is to use a bunch of unripe fruit (Gobhila, Pār. and Śāṅ., specifying that it was to be Udumbara fruit), a porcupine quill with three white spots and three bunches of kuśa grass. Pāraskara and Gobhila add the use of a Viratara stick and a full spindle. Some like Āśv. prescribe that the parting must be done thrice, Gobhila seems to prescribe it six times, while Khādīra (II. 2. 25) expressly says that it is to be done only once. Śāṅ. says that the unripe fruits are to be tied to a string of three twisted threads and the string is to be suspended from her neck as a garland. Pār. also seems to suggest the same. Āp. also says that the husband should (by way of ornament) tie a string of barley grains with young shoots on the woman's head (14. 7) and Vaikhāṇasa says that the woman is to wear a garland and have fragrant unguents applied to her body. Many of the grhya sūtras direct that lute players should sing a verse or verses. Gobhila, Khādīra, Vaik. are silent on this point, but Gobhila prescribes that brāhmaṇa women should address auspicious words to her 'Be you the mother of a valiant son.' There is divergence as to whose praise is to be sung. Śāṅ. and Pār. say that the ballad sung must be in praise of the (ruling) king or any one else who is very valiant. Āśv., Hīr., Baud., Bhāradvāja and Pār. prescribe a gāthā in honour of king Soma (the plant). Āpastamba refers to two verses, one of which praises king Yaugandhari and the other king Soma and prescribes that the first is to be sung for all varṇas residing in the Śālva countries, while the second is to be recited by brāhmaṇas. Some of the sūtras like Āśv., Pār., Bhāradvāja allow that in the ballad to be sung by the lute players the river on which the woman and her husband dwell is to be invoked.⁵¹⁹

519. गायतमिति वीणागायित्री संज्ञास्ति । उत्तरयोः पूर्वा साल्वानां ब्राह्मणानामितरा । आप. गृ. सू. 14. 4-5; the verses from the मन्त्रपाठ (II. 11. 12-13) are यौगन्धरिरेव नो राजेति साल्वीरवादिषुः । विवृत्तचक्रा आसीनास्तीरेण यमुने तव ॥ सोम एव नो राजित्याहुर्ब्राह्मणीः प्रजाः । विवृत्तचक्रा आसीनास्तीरेणसौ तव ॥ भारद्वाजयज्ञ (I. 2) has

Āśv. and Śān. expressly state that a bull is the fee in this saṁskāra for the officiating priest. Āp., Pār. and Bhāradvāja say that brāhmaṇas are to be fed in this rite. Śān. says that the woman is to sing merrily and wear gold ornaments if she likes. The Āp. and Bhāradvāja gr. say that the husband is to observe silence that day till the stars begin to appear and then after going out of the house from the east or north, he should first touch a calf and then mutter the vyāhṛtis (bhūh, bhuvah, svaḥ) and give up his silence.⁵²⁰

The Mānavagrhya (I. 12. 2) speaks of parting of hair in the marriage rite also. Laghu-Āśvalāyana (IV. verses 8-16) gives a faithful summary of the Āśv. gr.

(Continued from last page)

only the 2nd verse but reads the last pāda as स्तीरेण यमुने तव; while Hir. reads गङ्गे for यमुने in the verse as read by Bhāradvāja. Pār. reads 'सोम एव नो राजेमा मातृषीः प्रजाः । अविमुक्तचक्र आसीरंस्तीरे दुग्धमस्ताविति '. Here अविमुक्तचक्रे qualifies स्तीरे (loc.) or it may be the vocative addressed to the river whose name is taken. It may be inferred with some force that Āp. mantrapāṭha and Hir. gr were composed in the Sālva country on the banks of the Jumna and the Bhāradvāja gr on the Ganges. Haradatta explaining Āp gr. says that the country of Sālva is on the Jumna and that Vaiśyas are in abundance there. The country of Sālva was included in the Kaccāḍigaṇa (Pāṇini V. 2. 133, and Mahābhāṣya, vol. II. p. 300). Pāṇini mentions Sālva in IV. 1. 173, IV. 2. 135 and teaches the formation of Yaugandhara in IV. 2. 130 and of Yaugandhari in IV. 1. 173. In the Vanaparva 14. 1-5 it is said that the king of Sālva whose capital was at Saubha attacked Dvārakā. Śalyaparva (20. 1) calls the Sālva king lord of mleccha tribes and speaks of him as fighting for Duryodhana and as killed by Śaṭyaki. A Kārikā quoted by the Kāśikā makes Yaugandhara a division of Sālva 'उदुम्बरास्तिलखला मद्रकारा युगन्धराः । मुलिङ्गाः शरदण्डाश्च साल्वाववयसंज्ञिताः ॥'.

520. The words of the आप. सू. 14. 7-8 are यवाच्च विरुद्धानावध्य वाचं यच्छ-
द्यानक्षेत्रेभ्यः । उदितेषु नक्षत्रेषु प्राचीमुदीचीं वा दिशमुपनिष्क्रम्य वत्समन्वारभ्य व्याहृतींश्च
जपित्वा वाचं विमुञ्जेत् । The S. B. E. vol. XXX p. 280 translates 'he ties
barley grains with young shoots to the head of the wife; then she keeps
silence until the stars appear'. But this is wrong. Throughout this section
the performer (kartā) is the husband; even in the 7th sūtra grammar
requires that if the kartā of tying the garland ('ābadhya') is the
husband then the kartā of 'visrjet' also must be the husband. Sudarśana
notes (in his com.) that some read the sūtras as 'वाचं यच्छत आ नक्षत्रेभ्यः...
विमुञ्जेत' (in the dual); then both husband and wife have to observe
silence. He also notes that according to some the actions from tying
the yava onwards spoken of by Āp. are done by the wife herself and
not by the husband.

Āpastamba, Baud., Bhāradvāja and Pār. expressly say that this saṁskāra is to be performed only once at the first conception. For the difference of view among nibandhakāras vide above (pp. 205-206) on garbhādhāna.

Viṣṇu was of opinion that simantonnayana is a saṁskāra of the woman, but that according to some it is a saṁskāra of the foetus and so was to be repeated at each conception.⁵²¹ On account of the great divergence of details one may conjecture that this saṁskāra was not very ancient in the times of the Gṛhyasūtras.

It appears however that gradually this picturesque rite receded in the back ground, so much so that Manu does not even mention it by name, though Yāj. names it. In modern times in Western India some people perform a rite in the 8th month of pregnancy (called in Marathi *Aṭhaṅgulēm*) which retains some vestiges of the ancient rite (such as the garland of udumbara fruit).

Viṣṇubali :—According to Vasiṣṭha quoted in the Saṁskāra-prakāśa (p. 178) this ceremony was to be performed in the 8th month of pregnancy, on the 2nd, 7th or 12th *tithi* of the bright fortnight and when the moon was in the Śravana, Rohiṇi or Puṣya constellation. The same work quotes verses of Āśvalāyana describing the ceremony and stating its purpose viz. to remove harm to the foetus and for easy delivery of the woman and that it was to be performed during every conception. On the preceding day Nāndīśrāddha was to be performed and then homa to fire was to be performed up to the offering of ājyabhāgas. To the south of the fire another sthaṇḍila of the shape of a lotus or svastika was to be drawn on which 64 oblations of boiled rice with ghee thereon were to be offered to Viṣṇu (some offer them on the fire itself) with the verses of Rg. I. 22. 16-21, Rg. I. 154. 1-6, Rg. VI. 69. 1-8, Rg. VII. 104. 11, Rg. X. 90. 1-16, Rg. X. 184. 1-3. Then to the north-east of the fire, a square plot should be smeared with cowdung and be divided into 64 squares with white dust and 64 offerings of boiled rice should be offered with the same mantras and in their midst one ball of rice should be offered to Viṣṇu with the mantra loudly uttered ' namo

521. तथा च विष्णुः । सीमन्तोन्नयनं कर्म तत् स्त्रीसंस्कार इष्यते । केचिद्वर्षसंस्कारो गर्भे गर्भे प्रयुज्यते । स्मृतिच० (I. p. 17). This verse is read by लघुविष्णुः (Anan. ed. I. 10) as सीमन्तं ... कर्म न स्त्री ... इष्यते । गर्भस्यैव तु संस्कारो गर्भे गर्भे प्रयोजयेत्.

Nārāyaṇāya ' and the husband and wife should partake separately of two balls of the same rice. Then the offering to Agni Svi-
 śṭakṛt should be made, dakṣiṇā should be distributed and brāh-
 manas should be fed. The Vaik. (III. 13) describes Viṣṇubali
 differently. The gods with Agni as the first are invoked unto the
 northern praṇidhi vessel and then at the end Puruṣa is invoked
 four times with ' om bhūḥ ', ' om bhuvah ', ' om suvaḥ ', ' om
 bhūr-bhuvah-suvaḥ ', then to the east of the fire he invokes
 Viṣṇu on seats of darbha grass with the names, Keśava,
 Nārāyaṇa, Mādhava, Govinda, Viṣṇu, Madhusūdana, Trivikrama,
 Vāmana, Śrīdhara, Hṛṣikeśa, Padmanābha, Dāmodara ; then he
 bathes Viṣṇu, with mantras ' Āpaḥ ' (Tai. S. IV. 1. 5. 11 = Rg. X. 9.
 1-3), ' Hiranyavarṇāḥ ' (Tai. S. V. 6. 1) and the chapter beginning
 ' pavamānaḥ ' (Tai. Br. I. 4. 8); he does worship (with sandal
 paste, flowers &c.) by each of Viṣṇu's twelve names, then he
 offers 12 oblations of clarified butter with the mantras ' ato devā '
 (Rg. I. 22. 16-21), ' Viṣṇor-nu kam ' (Rg. I. 154. 1-7 = Tai. S. I. 2.
 13), ' tad-asya priyam ' (Tai. Br. II. 4. 6 = Rg. I. 154. 5), ' pra
 tadviṣṇuḥ ' (Tai. Br. II. 4. 3 = Rg. I. 154. 2), ' paro mātrayā '
 (Tai. Br. II. 8. 3), ' vicakrame trir-devaḥ ' (Tai. Br. II. 8. 3).
 Then he announces as offering a mess of rice cooked in milk on
 which ājya has been poured to the god and sacrifices it to him
 with the twelve names repeating the twelve mantras (Rg. I. 22.
 16-21, and Rg. I. 154. 1-6). Having praised the god with
 mantras from the four vedas he should prostrate himself before
 the god after taking twelve names with the word ' namaḥ ' at the
 end of each (i. e. by saying ' Keśavāya namaḥ ' &c.). What
 remains of the rice cooked in milk is eaten by the wife.

Soḍyantikarma :—Vide Āp. gr. 14. 13-15 ; Hir. gr. II. 2. 8-
 II. 3. 1, Bhāradvāja gr. I. 23, Gobhila gr. II. 7. 13-14, Khādīra gr.
 II. 2. 29-30, Pār. gr. I. 16, Kāthaka gr. 33. 1-3. This seems to be
 a very ancient rite. It means ' a rite for a woman who is about
 to be delivered of a child '. Rg. V. 78. 7-9 give the earliest
 indications of this rite. ' Just as the wind moves a lake on all
 sides, so may the foetus move and come out, being (now) in the
 tenth month. Just as the wind, the forest and the sea are in
 movement, so mayst thou (foetus) that art (now) in the tenth
 month, come out together with the after-birth, may the male
 child having been sleeping ten months inside his mother, come
 out a living being, unharmed, from his mother, herself being
 alive. ' Br. Up. VI. 4. 23 also refers to this rite " He sprinkles
 with water the woman who is about to be delivered (with the
 mantras) ' just as the wind may it come out with the

after-birth' (same as Rg. V. 78. 7 except the last pāda). This is a pen⁵²² of Indra with a bolt and with a chamber for rest : oh Indra, leave it and come out with the foetus and after-birth." Āp. gr. describes the ceremony as follows : ' Now is described the rite to secure a rapid delivery. With a cup that has not been dipped in water before he draws water in the direction of the current (of a river or spring); he places Tūryantī plant at his wife's feet; he should then touch on the head (with both hands) the woman who is in child-birth with the verse (Āp. mantra-pāṭha II. 11. 15),⁵²³ should sprinkle her with the waters (brought as above) with the next three verses (Āp. mantra-pāṭha II. 11. 16-18). If the after-birth does not come out, he should sprinkle her with the water (brought) as directed above with the next two verses ' (i. e. Āp. mantra-pāṭha II. 11 19-20).⁵²⁴ Hir. is very brief and is similar to Āp., but omits all verses except one (which is part of Āp. M. P. II. 11. 16). Bhāradvāja is similar to Āp., but gives verses that are slightly different from those of the Āp. M. P. Gobhila and Khādīra are very brief and say that a homa with two oblations of clarified butter is to be performed with the verses of the Mantra-brāhmaṇa I 5. 6-7. Pāraskara also speaks of the sprinkling of the woman with two verses of Vāj. S. VIII. 28-29 (the first being almost like Rg. V. 78. 7) and prescribes the recital of Atharvaveda I. 11. 4 for the falling of the after-birth. Ādityadarśana on Kāthaka gr. (33. 1) remarks that this rite is not really a saṁskāra and Devapāla says that this is a rite which has a seen result (while saṁskāras are deemed to have an unseen result).

Jātakarma :—This appears to have been a rite of hoary antiquity. In the Tai. S.⁵²⁵ II. 2. 5. 3-4 we read ' one should offer a cake cooked on twelve potsherds to Vaiśvānara, when a

522. This refers to the womb of the woman.

523. This is आभिष्टु दशभिरभिष्टुशामि दशमास्याय सूतवे । आप. म. पा. II. 11. 15.

524. Āp. M. P. II. 11. 20 is the same as Atharva. I. 11. 4.

525. वैश्वानरं द्वादशकपालं निर्वपेत्पुत्रे जाते । यस्मिंजात एतामिष्टिं निर्वपति पूत एव तेजस्यज्ञाद् इन्द्रियावी पशुमान् भवति । तै. सं. II. 2. 5. 3-4. जातकर्म is treated of in the following : आप. गृ. 15. 1. 7 (S. B. E 30 pp. 281-82), आश्व. गृ. (I. 15. 1-4, S. B. E. 29 p. 182), काठकपुष्टा 34-35, खादिर II. 2. 32-34 (S. B. E 29 p. 395), गोमिल II. 7. 17-23 (S. B. E vol. 30 pp 55-56), पारस्कर I. 16 (S. B. E. 29 pp 293-297), भारद्वाज I. 23-26, वैखानस III. 14-15, शांखायन I. 24. 1-5 (S. B. E. vol. 29 pp 49-50), हिरण्यकेशि (II. 3. 2-II. 4-5, S. B. E vol. 30 pp 210-214.)

son is born (to a man) That son, for whom when born they perform this 'iṣṭi', does become pure, glorious, substantial in (abundant) food, full of vigour and possessed of cattle'. This shows that Vaiśvānareṣṭi was performed on the birth of a son. Jaimini (IV. 3. 38) holds a discussion on this passage and establishes the conclusion that this iṣṭi is for the benefit of the son and not of the father and the bhāṣya of Śabara gives the further propositions that this iṣṭi is to be performed after the jātakarma rites are finished (and not immediately at birth) and that it is to be performed on a full moon day or a new moon day following ten days after birth. The Śat. Br. (S. B. E. vol. 44 p. 129) prescribes a certain rite before the navel string is cut "regarding a new born son let him say to five brāhmaṇas before the navel string has been cut 'breathe over him in this way.' But if he should be unable to obtain them, he may even himself breathe over him while walking round him". The Br. Up. I. 5. 2 contains the following interesting passage⁵²⁶ "when a boy is born they first make him lick clarified butter, and they make him take the breast (of the mother) after that." At the end of the Br. Up. (VI. 4. 24-28) there is an elaborate description of the jātakarma. "When (a son) is born, having kindled the fire, having placed the son on one's lap, having poured curds mixed with ghee in a bell-metal vessel he offers oblations of the curds mixed with ghee with the mantras 'may I maintain a thousand, prospering in my house; may there be no break with regard to progeny and cattle; svāhā! I offer to these in my mind my prāṇas, svāhā! Whatever I have done in excess in my work or whatever I may have left deficient in this (rite), may the wise (Agni) (called) Sviṣṭakṛt make that well sacrificed and well offered for us, svāhā!'. Then after bringing down his mouth up to the right ear of the son he should recite thrice the word 'speech'⁵²⁷, then having poured together curds, honey and clarified butter, he makes the (son) eat it by means of (a spoon of) gold not covered with anything else with the mantras 'I place in thee bhūḥ, I place in thee bhuvaḥ, I place in thee svaḥ, I place in

526. तस्मात्कुमारं जातं घृतं वै चाग्ने प्रतिलेहयन्ति स्तनं वा अनुधापयन्ति । बृह. उ. प. I. 5. 2.

527. The idea of muttering 'vāk' thrice is that the father wishes that speech as manifested in the three Vedas may come to the boy in due course. Bhūḥ, bhuvaḥ and svaḥ represent the three Vedas or earth, air and heaven.

thee bhūr-bhuvah svaḥ, I place in thee all'. Then he gives him (the boy that is born) a name with the words 'thou art the Veda'. That becomes his secret name. Then he hands the boy over to his mother and gives him the breast of the mother with the mantra (Rg. I. 164. 49) 'Oh, Sarasvatī! make that breast ready for being sucked, which lies on thy body, which engenders happiness, by which thou nourishest all blessings, which bestows gems, that wins wealth and is a generous donor'. Then he solemnly addresses the mother of the child with the following *mantras* 'Oh maitrāvaruṇī⁵²⁸! Oh strong one! thou art Ṛtā, she (the mother) has given birth to a valiant (boy); mayst thou be endowed with valiant sons, since thou hast made us possessed of a valiant son. They say to him (the newly born son) 'thou indeed excellest thy father, excellest thy grandfather; he may attain the highest station by his prosperity, glory and spiritual eminence, who is born as a son of such a brāhmaṇa that knows this'.

It will be clear from the above passages of the Br. Up. that the jātakarma rite contained the following parts: (1) homa of curds with gṛīta to the accompaniment of *mantras*; (2) repeating in the child's right ear the word 'speech' thrice; (3) making the child lick curds, honey and gṛīta by means of a golden ladle (or ring); (4) addressing the child with a name which was to be his secret name (nāmakaraṇa); (5) putting the child to the breast; (6) addressing the mother with *mantras*. The Śatapatha adds another detail viz. asking five brāhmaṇas if available to breathe on the child (from four quarters, east, south, west, north and one immediately above him) or the father himself may do so.

There is great divergence in the grhyasūtras on the different details that go to make up the jātakarma. Some give almost all the above seven details, while others omit some of them. The order of these components differs in the grhyasūtras and according to the Veda to which each sūtra is attached the mantras differ. It would be impossible to give in a brief compass the details from all grhyasūtras. Some description, however, of the details from important grhyasūtras is given below:

528. Maitrāvaruṇa is Vasīṣṭha and so Maitrāvaruṇī may be Arundhatī. इडा means 'earth' or 'food'. One rather expects अजीजनः for अजीजनम्.

The ceremony has to be performed by the very necessities of the case immediately after birth. But different sūtras express it in different ways, e. g. Āśv. I. 15. 2 says the rite should be done before any other person (than the mother and nurse) touches the child. Pār. gr. (I. 16) says it is performed before the navel string is cut off. Gobhila (II. 7. 17) and Khādira II. 2. 32 say that it is to be performed before the navel string is cut off and the breast is given to the child.

In the Āśv. gr. (I. 15. 1-4) the ceremony is described as follows: "When a son has been born, he (the father) should before other persons touch him, give to the child to eat honey and clarified butter in which gold has been rubbed by means of a golden (spoon) with the verse 'I give unto thee the Veda (wisdom or knowledge) of honey and ghr̥ta, (Veda) which is produced by the god Savitṛ (who urges on) the bountiful; may you have long life and may you live in this world for a hundred autumns being protected by the gods'. Bringing near the child's two ears (his mouth) the father mutters *medhājanana*⁵²⁹ 'may god Savitṛ bestow on thee intelligence; may the goddess Sarasvatī bestow on thee intelligence and may the two gods Āsvins wearing wreaths of lotus give to thee intelligence'.⁵³⁰ He touches the (son's) two shoulders (with the mantra) 'be a stone, be an axe, be indestructible gold; thou art indeed Veda, called son; so live a hundred autumns' and (with the mantra) 'Oh Indra, bestow the best wealth' (Rg. II. 21. 6) and 'Oh Maghavan (bountiful Indra)!⁵³¹ Oh (Indra) partaker of ṛjṣa! bestow on us' (Rg. III. 36. 10). And let them give him a name". The following sūtras (I. 15. 5-10) lay down rules about the name, which will be considered under Nāmakaraṇa.

529. The verse is so called because it was deemed to produce intelligence.

530. Nārāyaṇa (on Āśv. gr. I. 15. 2) notes that some say that the mantra is muttered only once, when the mouth is brought near each ear one after another, others say that the mantra is recited twice.

531. ऋजीव is Soma from which the essence is taken away (i. e. dregs of Soma). The com. Nārāyaṇa says that as to these mantras (1) some hold that the three mantras should be repeated continuously, while the shoulders are touched one after the other; (2) others hold that the mantra अस्मिन् सव should be uttered when touching the right shoulder, while the two 'इन्द्र श्रेष्ठानि' and 'अस्मे प्रयन्वि' should be uttered while touching the left; (3) the three mantras should be repeated together and the shoulders touched simultaneously. Nārāyaṇa prefers this last because the bhāṣyakāra who went before did so.

It will be noticed that out of the several components of the rite described in the Br. Up. and the Śat. Br., Āśv. omits express mention of homa, of putting the child to the breast (*stanadāna*), the address to the mother (*mātrabhimantraṇa*), and the breathing over the child by five brāhmaṇas or the father. The Śān. gr. (I. 24. 1-12) also omits homa, the *stanadāna* and *mātrabhimantraṇa*, but refers to the father breathing over the new born child thrice. Instead of gṛta and honey served with a golden spoon, Śān. prescribes mixing of curds, honey, gṛta and water or grinding together of rice and barley. It adds the tying of gold to a hempen string and fixing it on the right hand of the child till the mother gets up from child-bed.

It will have been noticed that Āśv. and Śān. both prescribe giving a secret name to the child on the day of birth and do not prescribe a separate Nāmakaraṇa ceremony. Śān. gr. (I. 24. 6) adds that a vyāvahārika name may be given on the 10th day from birth. The Gobhila gr. (II. 7. 13-15) and Khādīra gr. II. 2. 28-31 say that a secret name for the child that is to be born is to be uttered in the Soṣyanti-karma. So Āśv. probably carries on that tradition.

We shall now take the several components of the rite and show how they are dealt with by the several gṛhyasūtras.

Homa :—This is prescribed by the Br. Up., the Mānava, the Kāṭhaka gr. at the time of birth. The Āśv. gr. pariśiṣṭa (I. 26) says that homa should be performed to Agni and other gods as stated above; then the child should be made to eat honey and gṛta and then the offering be made to Agni. It is prescribed before birth (in the Soṣyantikarma) by Gobhila and Khādīra. It is prescribed after the whole rite by Baud. gr. II. 1. 13. It is omitted by Āśv. and Śān. The Pār. gr. (I. 16), Hir. gr., Bhāradvāja gr. (I. 26) say that the Aupāsana (i. e. gṛhya) fire is taken away and a sūtikāgni set up (which is also called Uttapanīya)⁵³² near the door of the lying-in chamber. The Vaik. (III. 15) calls it jātakāgni (and also Uttapanīya). These say that in this fire white mustard seed with small grains of rice are offered at the time of birth and at the morning and evening twilights for ten days after birth with certain mantras. Āp. prescribes that

532. The Sūtikāgni is prepared by placing the broken piece of a jar on the kitchen fireplace and heating it with the dried dung of a bull. 'सुत्क्यां कपलनारोप्य वृषभशकुत्पिण्डैर्जातिकाग्निं साधयेत्तमेनयुत्तपनीयमित्युदाहरन्ति' वैकानस III. 15.

mustard seeds and rice chaff are to be offered in the fire whenever any body enters the lying-in chamber for ten days.

(2) *Medhājanana* :—Two meanings are given to this. This word does not occur in the Br. Up. But it speaks of muttering in the right ear of the boy the word 'vāk' thrice and making the boy lick from a golden spoon or ring curds, honey and gṛṭa. The first of these viz. muttering in the right ear of the boy some words or a mantra is called medhājanana in Āśv. and Śān. (I. 24. 9 which prescribes 'vāk'); while most of the other sūtras viz. Vaik., Hir., Gobhila say that medhājanana is the action of making the child eat honey, ghee, curds or pounded barley and rice, to the accompaniment of mantras (like 'bhūstvayi dadhāmi' in Pār. or 'Bhūr ṛcaḥ' as in Vaikhānasa, or 'medhām te devaḥ' as in Āp.). The Baud. gr. (II. 1. 7) prescribes the giving of curds, honey and gṛṭa ten times with each of the ten mantras (Tai. Br. II. 5. 1) of the anuvāka beginning with 'prāno rakṣati viśvam-ejat.' The Vaik. expressly says that the Vacā⁵³³ plant, Pathyā plant, gold, honey and clarified butter become medhājanana. Manu II. 29 seizes upon the making the child eat gold (dust), honey and clarified butter to the accompaniment of mantras as the central part of the rite. Later works like the Samskāramayūkha regard this eating of honey and gṛṭa as the principal part of jātakarma.⁵³⁴

(3) *Āyusya* :—Some of the sūtras speak of a rite called āyusya in the jātakarma. This consists in muttering over the navel (as in Pār.) or in the right ear of the boy some mantra or mantras invoking the bestowal of long life on the boy. Āśv. (vide p. 231) has such an invocation in conjunction with the eating of honey and gṛṭa. Bhāradvāja also does the same. Mānava gr. prescribes the anuvāka 'Agne āyur-asi' (Kāṭhaka Sām. XI. 7) for 21 oblations (this anuvāka is full of the word 'āyusmat').

(4) *Amsābhimarsana* (touching the child on the shoulder or shoulders). Vide Āśv. above. Āp. begins his treatment with the direction that the father touches the boy with the Vātsapra anuvāka. Pār., Bhāradvāja speak of touching the boy twice, once with Vātsapra anuvāka (Vaj. S. XII. 18-29 or Tai. S. IV.

533. वचा पथ्या हिरण्यं मधु सर्पिरिति मेधाजननानि भवन्ति । वैखानसस्मार्त III. 15. Amara gives उग्रगन्धा and हरीतकी as synonyms of वचा and पथ्या respectively.

534. जातकर्मणि प्रधानमाहाश्वलायनः । कुमारं जातं पुरान्यैरालम्भात्सर्पिमधुनी हिरण्यनिकाषं हिरण्येन प्राशयेत् । संस्कारमयूख

2. 2), and again with ' be a stone, be an axe ' (in Pār. and with the mantra ' may he grow ' in Bhār.). Some sūtras like Śān. omit this.

(5) *Mātrabhimantraṇa* :—(addressing the mother). The mother is addressed by the father with the verse ' Thou art Iṣā &c ' (vide Br. Up. above), which occurs in Pār. Many sūtras omit this. Hir. has a different verse.

(6) *Pañca-brāhmaṇasthāpana* :—We saw above that the Śatapatha prescribes the breathing over the child by five brāhmaṇas or the father himself. Pār. prescribes the same and gives an option (the five brāhmaṇas are to repeat in order from the east prāṇa, vyāna, apāna, udāna and samāna). Śān. asks the father himself to breathe thrice over the boy with a verse referring to the three Vedas. Several sūtras omit this.

(7) *Stana-pratidhāna* or *stanapradāna* :—making the child take the breast. The Br. Up. and many of the sūtras prescribe this, together with the recitation of a *mantra* or *mantras* e. g. Pār. prescribes Vāj. S. 17. 87 and 38. 5 for the two breasts, Āp. and Bhār. prescribe Āp. mantrapāṭha II. 13. 2 only for the right breast; Hir. and Vaik. prescribe the same verse for both.

(8) *Deśābhimantraṇa*⁵³⁵ (or-marśana) :—touching the ground where the son is born and addressing the earth (with one or two mantras). Pār., Bhār., Āp., Hir. do this.

(9) *Nāmakaraṇa* :—(giving a name to the child). The Br. Up., Āśv., Śān., Gobhila, Khādira and several others speak of giving a name to the boy on the day of birth. Āśv. (I. 15. 4 and 10) prescribes the giving of two names on that date, one for common use (for which he gives elaborate rules) and the other a secret one which his parents only know till the boy's upanayana. Śān. reverses this and says the name for which similar elaborate rules are laid down by him is the secret name and a name for common use is to be given on the 10th day. Āp. gr. (15. 2-3 and 8) says on the day of birth a name derived from the nakṣatra (lunar mansion) on which the boy is born is given, which is the secret name and then on the 10th another name is to be given. According to Gobhila and Khādira a name is to be given in the Soṣyanti-karma which is to be kept secret.

535. भारद्वाज (I. 25) has यत्र ज्ञेते तदभिमुखसि । वेदं ते भूमिं हृदयं दिवि चन्द्रमसि अतिम् । वेदामृतस्य गोसारं माहं पौत्रमयं रुदम् ॥ इति । पारस्कर reads स यस्मिन्देशे जातो भवति तमभिमुखयते । वेदं.....अतिम् । वेदाहं तस्मां तद्विद्यात्पश्येम शरदः शतं जीवेम शरदः शतं शृणुयाम शरदः शतमिति । ।

(10) *Keeping off evil spirits*:—Though Āśv. and Śān. are entirely silent on this point several sūtras devote large space to this topic and are full of *mantras* which are more or less magic. Āp. prescribes the offering of mustard seed and rice chaff in fire three times with each of eight *mantras* (Āp. *mantra-pāṭha* II. 13. 7-14). Bhār. gr. (I. 23) also prescribes similar offerings with several verses. Hir. gr. requires the throwing of mustard seeds eleven times in the *sūtikāgni* with eleven *mantras* some of which are almost the same as in Bhāradvāja. Pār. gr. recites two of such *mantras*.⁵³⁶

It would not be out of place to mention a few other subsidiary matters. Baud., Āp., Hir. and Vaik. expressly say that the boy is to have a bath. The Hir. and Vaik.⁵³⁷ say that the axe is to be placed on a stone and gold is to be placed on the axe, then these are to be turned upside down (so that gold lies at the bottom and the stone is on top) and then the boy is to be held head eastwards above the stone by a female in her two hands, while the father repeats the two *mantras* 'be a stone &c.' and the mantra 'thou art produced from (my) limb by limb &c.' This shows how what was once only symbolical (viz. uttering the *mantras* 'be a stone' &c. indicating the desire that the boy should be strong, sharp and worthy like a stone, axe and gold) became transformed into a rite requiring physical presence of these things. Pār., Āp., Hir., Bhār. and Vaik. prescribe that a pot full of water should be placed towards the head (of the woman and her child) with a mantra 'Oh waters!

536. द्वारदेशे सूतिकाग्निमुपसमाधायात्थानात्संधिवेलयोः कलीकरणमिष्टान् सर्षपानग्नावावपति । शण्डामर्का उपवीरः शौण्डिकेय उलूखलः । मलिम्लुचो द्रोणासश्चवने नश्यतादितः स्वाहा ॥ आलिखन्ननिमिषः किंवदन्त उपश्रुतिर्ह्येषः कुम्भीशत्रुः पात्रपाणिर्दमणिर्हन्त्रीमुखः सर्षपाग्नाभ्यववने नश्यतादितः स्वाहेति । पारस्कर I. 16. These two occur in Hir. and the first in भारद्वाज also.

537. कुमारैः जाते द्वारवानेऽस्मानि परशुं तस्मिन्हिरण्यं स्थापयित्वा 'अश्मा भव' इत्यधर-मुत्तरं करोति तस्योपरि 'अङ्गादङ्गात्' इति कुमारमेकया स्त्रिया धारयेत् । वैखानस III. 14. The verse is अङ्गादङ्गात्संभवसि हृदयादधिजायसे । आत्मा वै पुत्रनामासि स जीव शरदः शतम् ॥ Āp. M. P. II. 11. 33. Āp. gr. (15. 12) prescribes that when a father returns from a journey he should take in his hands his son's head, should smell (or kiss) the top of it thrice and then mutter this verse. Nir. III. 4. quotes this verse as a ṛk in support of the view that sons and daughters equally partake of the inheritance. The formula अश्मा भव occurs in Āśv. gr. and in others also. Vaik. says that the jar is to be to the south of the woman's head ; Āp. employs the word 'śirastāḥ' which Sudarsana explains as 'near the head of the child'. The मन्त्र in पारस्कर is 'आपः सुतेषु जायथ यथा देवेषु जायथ । एवमस्यां सूतिकायां सपुत्रिकायां जायथ ॥' आप. म. पा. II. 13. 6 and हिरण्य. गृ. have a similar verse.

watch while (people are asleep).' None of the sūtras (except Vaikhāṇasa) refers to any astrological details. Vaik. (III. 14) says that when the child's nose appears, the position of the planets should be observed and his future welfare or otherwise should be examined, since the boy is to be so brought up as to enhance his good qualities. Both Āp. and Baud. say that the remnants of honey, curds and gṛta should be mixed with water and poured out in a cowstable (and not thrown about in an impure place). This ceremony is comparatively brief in Āp., Śān. and a few others, but in Hir., Pār. and Bhāradvāja it is most elaborate and would require an unduly long time considering the state of the newly born child and the woman in child-bed. There is no wonder, therefore, that this ceremony gradually went out of vogue. In modern times a few well-to-do families in Western India sometimes perform what is called 'putrāvāna' (in Marathi) and make the boy lick honey and gṛta by means of a golden piece or ring. The dangers to the child of an elaborate ritual must have been apparent to all people even in ancient times.⁵³⁸

The Sm. C. (I. p. 19)⁵³⁹ cites Hārīta, Śāṅkha, Jaimini to the effect that till the navel cord is cut there is no impurity, that the saṁskāra may be performed till then and that gifts of jaggery, sesame, gold, clothes, cows and corn may be made and accepted. The same work quotes Saṁvarta and other smṛtis to the effect that the father must bathe before he can perform the jātakarma rite. This would involve some further loss of time and it is remarkable that the gṛhya sūtras observe silence about this, though Manu V. 77 prescribes a bath on hearing of the birth of a son. The Sm. C. quotes Pracetas, Vyāsa and others to the effect that a nāndīśrāddha (which will be explained under śrāddha) should be performed in jātakarma (brāhmaṇas are not to eat cooked food in this śrāddha, but to receive corn or only money payment). Later works like the Dharmasindhu say that in jātakarma as in other rights, svastivācana, puṇyāha-vācana and mātṛkāpūjana are necessary.

538. The author knows of an instance where an old man jubilant over the birth of a son from his third wife entered upon the performance of the jātakarma according to his gṛhyasūtra and by the time the ceremony was over, the helpless child that had already little vitality was dead owing to exposure and cold.

539. हारीतोपि । 'माह्वनाभिच्छेदात् संस्कारं पुण्यार्थं कुर्वन्ति क्षिणायामाक्षौचम् ।'
..... शङ्खः 'कुमारप्रसवे नाभ्यामच्छिन्नायां शुद्धतिलहिरण्यवस्त्रगोधान्यपतिग्रहेष्वपि न दोषस्त-
द्वहस्तिष्येके शुर्वर्धे क्रियते ।' स्मृतिच० L. pp. 19 and 20.

Medieval writers of digests give extensive descriptions of *śānti* rites⁵⁴⁰ performed to counteract the inauspicious effects of birth on the 14th *tithi* of the dark half of a month or on the *amāvāsyā* or on *Mūla*, *Āśleṣā* and *Jyēṣṭhā* *nakṣatras* and certain astrological conjunctions like *Vyāti-pāta*, *Vaidhṛti*, *Saṁkrānti* (sun's passage from one sign of the zodiac into another). These matters are passed over here for want of space, as of little importance in modern times and as new departures introduced in the ancient *sūtra* rites by later works. A few general remarks will be made on these matters in the section on *Śānti* and *Muhūrta*.

In modern times on the 5th and 6th days after birth certain ceremonies are performed for which there is no warrant in the *sūtras*. These probably arose in the times of the *Purāṇas*, since the only verses quoted on this point in the *Nirṇayasindhu*, the *Saṁskāramayūkha* and other works are the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*, *Vyāsa* and *Nārada*. On these days the father or other male relative bathes in the first part of the night, then invokes *Gaṇeśa*, and certain minor deities called *Janmadā* on handfuls of rice and also *Ṣaṣṭhīdevī* and *Bhagavatī* (i. e. *Durgā*) and worships them with sixteen *upacāras*. Then *tāmbūla* and *dakṣiṇā* are offered to one or more *brāhmaṇas* and the members of the family keep awake that night with songs (in order to ward off evil spirits). One text from the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa* says 'men fully armed should keep watch the whole night'. It must be noted here that fear springing from astrological considerations got better of even natural love and affection to such an extent that some writers advised that the child when born on certain inauspicious conjunctions should be abandoned and its face should not be seen till at least its eighth year. Vide *Nityācārapaddhati* pp. 244-255.

Uthhāna :—(getting up from child-bed). According to *Vaik.* III. 18 on the 10th or 12th day after birth, the father shaves, bathes, purifies the house, performs in the *jātakāgni* (or in the ordinary fire, according to some) a sacrifice to the earth through some person belonging to another *gotra*. Then he brings back the *aupāsana* (*grhya* fire), offers oblations to *Dhātṛ* and others (as in I. 16), five oblations to *Varuṇa* (I. 17), the *mūlahoma* (I. 18) and feeds the *brāhmaṇas*. *Śaṅ. gr.* (I. 25) is more elaborate. It prescribes that a mess of cooked food is prepared in the *sūtikāgni*

540. Vide *संस्काररत्नमाला* pp. 846-47, *संस्कारयकाश* pp. 201-203. 'सर्वेषां गण्डजातानां परित्यागो विधीयते । जातस्यादर्शनं तावद्यावत्पूर्णे समाप्तकम् ॥ इति । अन्ये तु होमपूर्वकदानेन तद्वर्जनं शुभमित्याहुः ।' नित्याचारपद्धति.

and oblations are made to the *tithi* of the child's birth, and to three *nakṣatras* and to their presiding deities, two to Agni and then one (i. e. 10th) to Soma with Rg. I. 91. 7. Hir. gr. II. 4. 6-9 (S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 214) and Bhāradvāja (I. 26) also refer to *utthāna*. Both say that the *sūtikāgni* is taken away and the *Aupāsana* fire is brought in and oblations of *ghṛta* (12 or 8) are offered in that fire with the *mantras* beginning with 'dhātā dadātu no rayim'.

*Nāmakaraṇa*⁵⁴¹:—The ceremony of naming a child. Vide Āp. gr. 15. 8-11 (S. B. E. vol. 30, pp. 282-283), Āśv. gr. I. 15. 4-10, S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 183, Baud. gr. II. 1. 23-31, Bhār. gr. I. 26, Gobhila gr. II. 8. 8-18 (S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 57-58), Hir. gr. II. 4. 6-15 (S. B. E. vol. 30, pp. 214-215), Kāthaka gr. 34. 1-2 and 36. 3-4, Kausika sūtra 58. 13-17, Mānava gr. I. 18, 1, Śān. gr. I. 24. 4-6 (S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 50), Vaik. III. 19, Vārāha gr. 2.

There is great divergence of view as to the time when the child was named. Several times are suggested in the ancient literature and in the *sūtras* and *smṛtis*.

(a) We have already seen (p. 232) that a child was addressed by a name, according to Gobhila and Khādira, even in the *Soṣyantikarma*.

(b) According to the Br. Up., Āśv. and Śān., Kāthaka gr. (34.1) a name was given to the child on the day of birth. This practice is supported by a passage of the Śat. Br.^{541a} "therefore when a son is born (the father) should bestow on him a name; thereby he drives away the evil that might attach to the boy; (the father gives him) even a second, even a third (name)". The *Mahābhāṣya* of Patañjali appears to refer to this view. "In the world the parents give a name to the son when born in a closed space (or room) such as *Devadatta*, *Yajñadatta*; from their employment (of that name for the boy) others also come to know 'this is his appellation'".⁵⁴²

541. For a comprehensive treatment of the way in which names were given from Vedic times onwards, my paper 'Naming a child or a person' in the 'Indian Historical Quarterly' for 1938, vol. 14, pp. 24-44 may be consulted. A summary of the points made in that paper is given below together with some fresh matter.

541a. तस्मात्पुत्रस्य जातस्य नाम कुर्यात्पाप्मानमेवास्य तद्वद्वन्त्यपि द्वितीयमपि तृतीयम् । शतपथ VI. 1. 3. 9.

542. लोके तावन्मादापितरो पुत्रस्य जातस्य संवृतेऽवकाशे नाम कुर्वते देवदत्तो यज्ञदत्त इति । तयोरुपचाराद्वन्त्यपि जानन्तीयमस्य संज्ञेति । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 38.

(c) Āp., Baud., Bhār., and Pār. prescribe the 10th day after birth for nāmakaraṇa. The Mahābhāṣya quotes a passage⁵⁴² from the Yājñikas that a name was given on a day after the tenth from birth.

(d) Yāj. I. 12 prescribes it on the 11th day after birth.

(e) Baud. gr. (II. 1. 23) says that Nāmakaraṇa may be performed on the 10th or 12th, while Hir. gr. says that it should be on the 12th. As Vaik. prescribes that the mother should get up from child-bed on the 10th or 12th and then speaks of nāmakaraṇa, it follows that the ceremony was performed according to it on the 10th or 12th. Manu II. 30 says it may be performed on the 10th or 12th day after birth or on an auspicious *tithi*, *muhūrta* and *nakṣatra* thereafter.

(f) Gobhila (II. 8. 8, S. B. E. vol. 30. p. 57) and Khādira⁵⁴⁴ say that it should be on any day after ten nights, one hundred nights or a year from birth. Laghu-Āśvalāyana (VI. 1) allows it on 11th, 12th or 16th day. Aparārka (p. 26) quotes grhyaparīṣiṣṭa to the effect that it may be performed after the 10th night is passed or after 100 nights or a year and the Bhaviṣyat-purāṇa to the effect that it may be performed after 10 or 12 nights or on the 18th day or after a month. It is worthy of note that Bāṇa in his Kādambarī (pūrvabhāga para 68) says that Tārāpiḍa named his son Candrāpiḍa when the tenth day after birth fell on an auspicious *muhūrta* and that the minister Sukanāsa named his son Vaiśampāyana next day.⁵⁴⁵

The commentators were bewildered by these differences. Viśvarūpa explains Manu II. 30 as 'when the 10th night is past' and Kullūka does the same (i. e. according to him it is performed on the eleventh day). Madhātithi does not⁵⁴⁶ like the addition of 'past' (*atitāyām*) after 'daśamyām' in Manu II. 30 and says just as *jātakarma* can be performed even when there is impurity due to birth, so nāmakaraṇa may be performed on the 10th and that the only essential thing is that it is not to

543. महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 4.

544. जननादूर्ध्वं दशरात्राच्छतरात्रात्संवत्सराद्वा नाम कुर्यात् । स्वादिर II. 3. 6 ; शुद्धपरिशिष्टम् । जननादशरात्रे द्युष्टे शतरात्रे संवत्सरे वा नामधेयकरणम् । अपरार्क p. 26.

545. प्राप्ते दशमेहनि पुण्ये मुहूर्ते चन्द्रापीड इति नाम चकार । अपरेद्युः सुकना-
सोपि वैशम्पायन इति नाम चकार । कादम्बरी para. 68 ; 'अवासे च दशमेऽहनि
... महाभ्वेतेति यथार्थमेव नाम कृतवान् ।' कादम्बरी para 140.

546. जातकर्मवदाशौचमि करिष्यते । ... यदि दशमीद्वादशौ वक्ष्यमाणशुणयुक्ते
भक्षतः तदा तयोः कर्तव्यम् । यदा न तदान्यस्मिन्कल्पहनि कर्तव्यम् । ... अयं च परमार्थः ।
दशमीद्वादशीभ्यामर्वाङ् न कर्तव्यम् । उत्तरकालं च यद्वह्नश्च लभं परिशुद्धं तद्वहरे
कर्तव्यम् । मेधातिथि on मनु II. 30.

be performed before the 10th or 12th. Aparārka says that there is an option and one may follow one's own grhyasūtra. It appears that the nāmakarana⁵⁴⁷ of Hariścandra, son of Jayat-candra, king of Kanoj, took place three weeks after jatakarma (on 31. 8. 1175 A. D.). In modern times nāmakarana generally takes place on the 12th day after birth and no Vedic ceremony as prescribed in the sūtras is gone through, but women assemble and after consulting the male members of the family beforehand announce the name and place the child in the cradle.

In Rg. VIII. 80. 9 we read 'when you give us a fourth name connected with (the performance of) a sacrifice, we long for it; immediately afterwards, you, our master, take us' (forward to glory)⁵⁴⁸. This shows that a man could have a fourth name even in the times of Rg. and the fourth was a name due to the performance of a yajña. Sāyana explains that the four names are: nakṣatranāma (derived from the nakṣatra on which a person was born), a secret name, a publicly known name and a fourth name like Somayāji (due to having performed a *Somayāga*). In Rg. X. 54. 4 there appears to be a reference to four names (though Sāyana takes *nāma* here to mean the body or deed). In Rg. IX. 75. 2 there is reference to a third name 'the son has a third name unknown to the parents and which is in the bright part of heaven'. The two names are the nakṣatra name and the ordinary name, while the third would be the name due to the performance of a sacrifice (which the parents could not foresee at his birth). In the Rg. frequent reference is made to the secret name of a person. Vide Rg. IX 87. 3, X. 55. 1-2. We saw above (note 541a) that the Śat. Br. speaks of a second or even a third name for a person given to him by his parents. The same Brāhmaṇa⁵⁴⁹ recommends 'Therefore a brāhmaṇa

547. Vide I. A vol. 18 p. 129, read with E. I. vol. IV. p. 120 and E. I. vol. X. p. 95.

548. तृतीयं नाम यज्ञियं यदा करस्त्वदुश्मसि । आदित्यनिर्ण ओहसे । ऋ. VIII. 80.9; चत्वारि ते अहुर्याणि नामादायानि महिषस्य सन्ति । ऋ. X. 54.4; दधाति पुत्रः पित्रोःस्वीच्यं नाम तृतीयमधि रोचने दिवः । ऋ. IX. 75. 2. The हिरण्यकोशियुद्धा speaks of three names नक्षत्रनाम, व्यावहारिकनाम and a third one like सोमयाजी. The महाभाष्य also says that a man bears the name आग्निष्टोमयाजी when he performs अग्निष्टोम 'अग्निष्टोमयाजीत्येतत्तस्मिन् भविता । कस्मिन् योऽस्य पुत्रो जनिता । कदा यदाग्निष्टोमेनेष्टं भवति । महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 168 on par. III. 4. 1.

549. तस्माद् ब्राह्मणोऽष्टम्याने द्वितीयं नाम कुर्वीत राक्षसोति हैव य एवं विद्वान् द्वितीयं नाम कुरुते । शतपथ III. 6. 2. 24. Vide द्राह्मण्यश्रौत. I. 3. 9 for the recital of the three names of a sacrificer (घन्विभाष्य says they were अग्निवादनीय, व्यावहारिक and नक्षत्रनाम).

when he does not prosper should give himself a second name'. But how these names were formed is not stated anywhere in the Vedic literature. In the *Tai. S.* VI. 3. 1. 3 it is said 'therefore a brāhmaṇa who has two names prospers'.⁵⁵⁰ The *Śat. Br.* (II. 1. 2. 11) says 'Arjuna is the secret name of Indra and the constellation of Phālgūṇis being presided over by Indra they are really Arjunyaḥ, but are called Phālgunyaḥ in an indirect way'.⁵⁵¹ We saw above (p. 230) that the *Br. Up.* speaks of a secret name given by the father on the day of birth. Hardly any secret names are expressly mentioned in the Vedic literature except the name of Arjuna given to Indra (and being secret they cannot be expected to be mentioned). How the secret name was given is not clear from the Vedic literature. In *Vāj. S.* 17. 89 there is a reference to the secret name of gṛṛta⁵⁵². The *Tai. S.* gives expression to the request that the (āhavanīya) fire should bear the name of one who keeps sacred fires, while the person praying was away on a journey⁵⁵³.

A few examples of the three names of a person from the Vedic literature may be given here. These are generally the ordinary name, a name derived from his father and a third from his gotra (or from the name of some remote ancestor). In *Rg. V.* 33. 8 we find Trasadasyu (his own name), Paurukutsya (son of Purukutsa), Gairikṣita (descendant of Girikṣita). In the *Ait. Br.* (33. 5) Śunahśepa is spoken of as Ajigarti (son of Ajigarta) and also as Āngirasa (a gotra name), while king Hariścandra is mentioned (*Ait. Br.* 33. 1) as Vaidhasa (son of Vedhas) and Aikṣvāka (descendant of Ikṣvāku). In the *Śat. Br.* (XIII. 5. 4. 1) Indrota Daivāpa (son of Devāpi) Śaunaka (a gotra name) is said to have been the priest of Janamejaya. In the *Chān. Up.* (V. 3. 1 and 7) Śvetaketu Āruṇeya (son of Āruṇi) is styled Gautama (a gotra name). In the *Kāthopanishad*

550. तस्माद् द्विनामा ब्राह्मणोर्धुकः । तै. सं. VI. 3. 1. 3. This is quoted in *Hir. gr.*, *Bhār. gr.* I. 26 and other gṛhya sūtras.

551. अर्जुनो ह वै नामेन्द्रो यदस्य शुद्धं नामार्जुन्यो वै नामैतास्ता एतत्परोक्षमाचक्षते काल्युन्य इति । शतपथ II. 1. 2. 11.

552. घृतस्य नाम शुद्धं यदस्ति जिह्वा देवानाममुतस्य नाभिः । वाज. सं. 17. 89.

553. मम नाम प्रथमं जातवेदः पिता माता च दधतुर्यदग्ने । तत्त्वं बिभृहि पुनरा मदेतो स्तवाहं नाम बिभराम्यग्ने ॥ तै. सं. I. 5. 10. 1. This is differently read in other sंहिताs e. g. काठक VII. 3 reads 'दधतुर्न्ये । तत्त्वं गोपाया पुनर्ददौ ते वयं बिभराम तव नाम. This verse is quoted in nāmakaraṇa by several sūtras, e. g. *Bhār. I.* 26.

(I. 1. 1 and 11) Naciketas is the son of Vājaśravasa and is addressed as Gautama (a gotra name).

Usually however a person is referred to in the Vedic literature by two names. In some cases it is his own name and a gotra name e. g. Medhyātithi Kāṇva (Rg. VIII. 2. 40), Hiranyastūpa Āṅgīrasa (Rg. X. 149. 5), Vatsapri Bhālandana (Tai. S. V. 2. 1. 6), Bālāki Gārgya (Br. Up. II. 1. 1), Cyavana Bhārgava (Ait. Br. 39. 7). In other cases a man is referred to by his own name and another name derived from a country or locality e. g. Kaśu Caidya (Rg. VIII. 5. 37), Bhīma Vaidarbha (Ait. Br. 35. 8), Durmukha Pāñcāla (Ait. Br. 39. 23), Janaka Vaideha (Br. Up. III. 1. 1), Ajātaśatru Kāśya (Br. Up. II. 1. 1). In some cases a matronymic is added to a person's name e. g. Dīrghatamā Māmateya (Rg. I. 158. 6), Kutsa Ārjuneya (son of Arjuni, Rg. IV. 26. 1, VII. 19. 2, VIII. 1. 11), Kakṣivat Auśija (son of a woman called Uśik, Rg. I. 18. 1, Vāj. S. III. 28),⁵⁵⁴ Prahlāda Kāyādhava (son of Kayādhū, Tai. Br. I. 5. 10), Mahidāsa Aitareya (son of Itarā, Chān. Up. III. 16. 7). In the *vaṁśa* added at the end of the Br. Up. there are about forty sages with matronymic names. The practice of mentioning a man by reference to his mother's name or to his mother's father's gotra was continued till later times, as will be shown later on. The most usual method, however, of referring to a person in the Rg. and also in other Vedic works was to state his name along with another derived from his father's name. For example, Ambarīṣa, Rjṛāśva, Sahadeva and Surādhas are all called Vārsāgira (son of Vṛṣāgir, Rg. I. 100. 17); king Sudās is called Pajavana (son of Pijavana, Rg. VII. 18. 22), Devāpi is Ṛṣṭiṣeṇa (son of Ṛṣṭiṣeṇa, Rg. X. 98. 5-6), Śamyu Bārhaspatya (Tai. S. II. 6. 10), Bhṛgu Vāruṇī (Ait. Br. 13. 10 and Tai. Up. III. 1), Bharata Daṁṣṣanti (Śatapatha XIII. 5. 4. 11, Ait. Br. 39. 9), Nābhānediṣṭha Mānava (Ait. Br. 22. 9).

The principal rules about names may now be set out from the *gṛhyasūtras*. Āsv. (I. 15. 4-10, S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 182-183) says 'Let (them) give the boy a name beginning with a sonant, having a semivowel in it, with a *visarga* at the end, consisting of two syllables or of four syllables, of two syllables if (the father) is desirous of firm (worldly) position (for his son), of four syllables if he is desirous of spiritual eminence (for his son);

⁵⁵⁴. बार्तिक 7 on पाणिनि VI. 1.37 explains the words कक्षीवन्तं य औशिजः (ऋ. I. 18. 1). Vide महाभाष्य vol III. p. 33.

but (in all cases) with an even number of syllables in the case of males and with an uneven number of syllables in the case of women. And let him find out (for the boy) a name to be employed at respectful salutations (at Upanayana &c.); that name (the boy's) mother and father alone should know till his upanayana'⁵⁵⁵. The Śāṅ. gr. (S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 50) omits the rule about the name ending in a *visarga* and allows an option of six syllables and adds that the name should be formed by a *kṛt* affix (from a root) and not by a *taddhita*; that this name should be known only to his parents and that on the tenth day after birth the father should give the child a name for ordinary use which should be pleasing to brāhmaṇas. It should be noticed that Āśv. and Śāṅ. differ on one very important point. According to Āśv. the name for which elaborate rules are laid down is to be the ordinary name and he lays down no rule about the formation of the secret name; while Śāṅ. lays down for the secret name the same rules as Āśv. does for the public one and Śāṅ. says about the public name that it should be pleasing.

Instead of quoting grhya sūtras at length the principal rules about names deducible from them may be stated in the form of propositions with a few illustrations for each.

(1) The first rule in almost all sūtras is that the name for males should contain two or four syllables or an even number. This rule is deduced from Vedic literature where most of the names contain either two syllables (e. g. Baka; Trita, Kutsa, Bhrgu) or four syllables (Trasadasyu, Purukutsa, Medhyātithi, Brahmadata &c.), though names of three syllables (like Kavaṣa, Cyavana, Bharata) and of five syllables

555. नाम चारुमै द्युः षोषवदाद्यन्तरन्तस्थमभिनिष्ठानान्तं द्व्यक्षरम् । चतुरक्षरं वा । द्व्यक्षरं प्रतिष्ठाकामश्चतुरक्षरं ब्रह्मवर्चसकामः । युग्मानि त्वेव पुंसां । अयुजानि स्त्रीणां । अभिवादीन्यं च समीक्षितं तन्मातापितरौ विद्यातामोपनयनात् । आश्व. गृ. I. 15. 4-10. The षोष are the last three letters of the five वर्गस (कवर्गादि), य्रल् व and ह. Separate the 5th sūtra as षोषवदादि अन्तरन्तस्थं (अन्तः मध्ये अन्तरस्थाः यरलवोः यस्य); अभिनिष्ठानान्तं means अभिनिष्ठानः अन्ते यस्य. अभिनिष्ठान means विसर्ग. पाणिनि VIII. 3. 86 derives that word. That such rules are very ancient follows from a quotation in the महाभाष्य 'याज्ञिकाः पठन्ति । दशस्युत्तरकालं पुत्रस्य नाम विद्ध्यद् षोषवदाद्यन्तरन्तस्थमवृद्धं त्रिषुषान्दूकमनरिप्रतिष्ठितं तद्धि प्रतिष्ठिततमं भवति द्व्यक्षरं चतुरक्षरं वा नाम कृतं कुर्वाञ्च तद्धितमिति । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 4. त्रिषुषान्दूकम् that would follow the name of (one of) the three ancestors of the boy's father. अन्दूक means 'descent or family.' अवृद्धं means that the first syllable is not आ, ऐ or औ (vide पाणिनि I. 1. 73) and अनरिप्रतिष्ठित means 'not borne by his foe.'

(like Nābhānediṣṭha, Hiranyastūpa) are not wanting. Baijavāpa⁵⁵⁶ grhya allowed the name to be of one, two, three, four or any number of syllables. Śān. allowed a name even of six syllables and Baud. gr. (II. 1. 25) of six or even eight. Examples of names with two syllables and four syllables are given below.

(2) Almost all grhya sūtras contain the rule that the name should begin with a sonant and contain in the middle a semivowel. This is stated also in the ancient quotation from Yājñikas in the Mahābhāṣya.

(3) Some sūtras prescribe that the name should end in a *visarga* preceded⁵⁵⁷ by a long vowel (e. g. Āp., Bhār., Hir., Pār.). Āśv. only mentions that it should end in a *visarga*, while Vaik. and Gobhila say that it may end in a long vowel or in a *visarga*. These rules were probably based on such Vedic names as Sudās, Dīrghatamas, Prthuśravas (that occur in the R̥gveda) and such names as Vatsapri (Tai. S. V. 2. 1. 6).

(4) Āp. prescribes that the name should have two parts, the first being a noun and the second a verbal formation (generally a past passive participle). This rule is probably based on such ancient names as Brahmadatta (which occurs in Br. Up. I. 3. 24 and figures very much in Pali works), Devadatta, Yājñadatta &c.

(5) Many grhya sūtras (like Pār., Gobhila, Śān., Baijavāpa, Vārāha) say that the name should be formed from a root by a *kṛt* affix and should not be a *taddhita* (i. e. formed from a noun by an affix).

(6) Āp. and Hir. say that the name should have the *upasarga* 'su' in it as a Brāhmaṇa passage says that such a name has stability in it. Examples are Sujāta, Sudarsana, Sukeśas (Praśna Up. I. 1).

556. वैजवापः । पिता नाम करोति एकाक्षरं द्व्यक्षरं त्र्यक्षरं चतुरक्षरमपरिमितं वा कृतं कुर्यान्न तद्धितम् । अपरार्क p. 27. भवः, भद्रः, देवः, वार्दाः (वारि ददाति इति), गीर्दाः (गिरं ददाति) are examples of names of two syllables and देवदत्तः, विष्णुमित्रः, यज्ञदत्तः, भवनाथः, नागदेवः, सुदर्शनः, द्रविणीदाः of those of four syllables. In the Mahābhāṣya देवदत्त and यज्ञदत्त are the most frequent stock names whenever it predicates something about a person in general and it also says that such names are shortened as e. g. ' देवदत्तो दत्तः, सत्यभामा भासेति ' महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 111 on पाणिनि I. 1. 45.

557. पुत्रस्य नाम दद्याति पिता मातेति । द्व्यक्षरं चतुरक्षरं वा नामपूर्वमाख्यातोत्तरं दीर्घाभिनिष्टानान्तं योषवदाद्यन्तरन्तस्थम् । आप. यू. 15. 8-9.

(7) Baud. gr. prescribes that the name may be derived from a sage or a deity or an ancestor.⁵⁵⁸ The Mānava gṛhya, however, forbids the giving of a name of a deity itself, but allows the giving of a name derived from the name of a deity or a nakṣatra. Examples of names derived from sages would be Vāsiṣṭha, Nārada &c. and of names taken from deities would be Viṣṇu, Śiva &c. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 12 quotes a passage of Śaṅkha that the name should be connected with one's family deity. It should be noticed that in modern times most names in many parts of India are the names of deities or of heroes supposed to be *avatāras* of deities. In Vedic literature hardly any human being bears the name of any of the Vedic gods (Indra, Mitra, Pūṣan &c). There are only a few exceptions such as that of Bhṛgu (in Tai. Up. III. 1) who is said to have learnt from his father called Varuṇa and in the Praśna Up. (I. 1) there is Sauryāyaṇi Gārgya whose name is derived from Sūrya. But in the Vedic Literature persons have names derived from the names of gods, such as Indrota (Indra + ūta, protected), Indradyumna. The names that occur in the Mahābhāṣya such as Devadatta, Yājñadatta, Vāyudatta (vol. II. p. 296), Viṣṇumitra (vol. I. pp. 41 and 359), Bṛhaspatidattaka (or Bṛhaspatika), Prajāpatidattaka (or-patika), Bhānudattaka (or Bhānuka) and others set out in the Mahābhāṣya (vol. II. p. 425) exemplify the rule of the Mānavagṛhya. It is difficult to say when the very names of deities began generally to be borne by human beings. Probably the practice began in the first centuries of the Christian era. From the fifth century onwards we have historic examples of such names, e. g. in the Iran stone inscriptions of Budhagupta dated in the Gupta samvat 165 i. e. 484-5 A. D. (Gupta Inscriptions No. 19) there is a brāhmaṇa Indra-Viṣṇu, son of Varuṇa-Viṣṇu, son of Hari-Viṣṇu.

(8) Baud., Pār., Gobhila (and the Yājñikas quoted by the Mahābhāṣya) prescribe that the name of the boy may be the same as that of any of the ancestors of the father. The Mānava gr. (I. 18) expressly says that the father's own name should not be given. This practice was observed in ancient times and continues even today, when the child is often given his grandfather's name.⁵⁵⁹ Vide I. A. vol. VI. p. 73 where we see that Pulakeśi II was grandson of Pulakeśi I.

558. ऋष्यन्तं देवतान्तं वा। यथैवैषां पूर्वपुरुषाणां नामानि स्युः। बौ. गृ. सू. II.1.28-29; यज्ञस्य नामधेयं देवताश्रयं नक्षत्राश्रयं देवतायाश्च मत्पक्षं प्रतिषिद्धम्। मानवगृह्य। I. 18.

559. In the E. I. vol. 14 p. 342 (of saka 1470) strangely enough the engraver's name is the same as his father's.

(9) The gr̥hyasūtras (except Pār. and Mānava) are agreed that a secret name is to be given to the boy by the parents, in the Soṣyantīkarma according to Gobhila and Khādīra, at birth according to some (like Āśv. and Kāthaka) and according to others (like Āp., Baud., Bhār.) at the time of Nāmakarāṇa on 10th or 12th day. We saw above that Śāṇ. and Kāthaka give elaborate rules about the secret name, which rules are those of the Vyāvahārika⁵⁶⁰ name according to Āśv. and many other sūtrakāras. Gobhila and Khādīra give no rules about the secret name. Āp., Hir. and Vaik. only say that the secret name should be derived from the nakṣatra of birth, but give no further rules. Bhāradvāja⁵⁶¹ speaks of the giving of two names in Nāmakarāṇa, one being derived by applying the intricate rules described above and the other being a nakṣatra name; but it is not quite clear which was to be the secret name; it is probable, however, that the nakṣatra name was to be the secret one. According to Āśvalāyana the secret name was called Abhivādāniya (which was to be known to the parents only till the boy's upanayana and which was to be used by the boy for announcing himself in respectful salutations); but he does not say how it was to be derived. Gobhila, Khādīra, Vārāha (5) and Mānava speak of an abhivādāniya name. Gobhila prescribes that this name was to be given to the boy at the time of upanayana by the ācārya and was to be derived from the nakṣatra of birth or from the presiding deity of that nakṣatra. Gobhila⁵⁶² further adds that according to some teachers the abhivādāniya name was derived from

560. According to the Kāthaka gr̥hya (34. 1-3 and 36) only one is given (on the day of birth) and the same is used in Nāmakarāṇa (36. 3), but it mentions that it was the view of some that another name was to be given in Nāmakarāṇa.

561. नक्षत्रनाम द्वितीयं स्यादन्यतरद्गुह्यं स्यादन्यतरेणैव नामान्वयेत् । भारद्वाजश्रुत्या I. 26.

562. गोभिल and खादिर appear to suggest three names, one that was secret given in सोष्यन्तीकर्म (गोभिल II. 7. 15-16), the 2nd in nāmakarāṇa (गोभिल II. 8. 8 and 14-16 derived by means of the intricate rules specified above) and a third in Upanayana called अभिवादनीय (गोभिल II. 10. 21-25). According to them a name like सोमयाज्ञी would be the fourth name. In वैखानस I. 7 it is said that in the पुण्याहवाचन the following names of the यजमान should be taken one after another viz. नक्षत्रनाम, गोत्रनाम, पितृनाम, मातृगोत्रनाम and स्वनाम (ending in शर्मन् if he is a ब्राह्मण). को नामासीति नामधेयं पृच्छति तस्याचार्यः । अभिवादनीयं नाम कल्पयित्वा देवताभयं नक्षत्राभयं वा । गोत्राभयमप्येके । गोभिलश्रुत्या II. 10. 22-25; को नामासीत्युक्तो देवताभयं नक्षत्राभयं वाभिवादनीयं नाम ब्रूयादसावसीति । खादिर II. 4. 12.

the gotra of the boy (as e. g. Gārgya, Śaṇḍilya, Gautama &c.). This practice is based on the usage we find in the Upaniṣads, where Satyakāma when about to go to a teacher for Vedic study asks his mother what his gotra was (Chān. Up. IV. 4. 1) and where the teacher also asks him what his gotra was. In the Kathopaniṣad Naciketas is styled Gautama and in Chān. V. 3. 7 Śvetaketu is addressed as Gautama by Pravāhaṇa Jaivali when the latter expounded Samvarga-vidyā to the former. But if the abhivādaniya was a gotra name there could have been no secrecy. From Gobhila it appears that the ācārya told the boy his abhivādaniya name, but the Khādira suggests that the boy already knew it (from his father or mother) and informed the teacher. The nakṣatranāma was of importance in the performance of Vedic sacrifices. The Vedāṅgajyotiṣa⁵⁶³ (of the Rg) in verses 25-28 enumerates 28 nakṣatras (adding Abhijit after Uttarāśādhā and before Śravaṇa) and their presiding deities and adds that in sacrifices the sacrificer is to bear a name derived from the name of the presiding deity of his nakṣatra. The object of keeping the nakṣatra name secret seems to have been to prevent rites of *abhicāra* (magical practices) against a

563. नक्षत्रदेवता ह्येत एताभिर्नक्षत्रकर्मणि । ऽयजमानस्य शास्त्रज्ञैर्नाम नक्षत्रजं स्मृतम् ॥ वेदाङ्गज्योतिष (ऋ.) verse 28. In the Vedic Literature and in the Vedāṅga Jyotiṣa the nakṣatras are enumerated from Kṛttikā to Apabharanī and not from Āsvini to Revatī as in medieval and modern times. For the position of Abhijit, vide Tai. Br. I. 5. 2. The nakṣatras and their presiding deities may profitably be specified here. Some of the names differ from the modern ones. The oldest lists are in the Atharvaveda (19. 7. 2-5) and Tai. S. IV. 4. 10. 1-3, Tai. Br. I. 5. 1 and III. 1. 1. कृत्तिका-अग्नि, रोहिणी-प्रजापति, मृगशीर्ष or मृगशिरः (इन्वका in तै. सं.)-सोम, आर्द्रा (वाद्र in तै. सं.)-रुद्र, पुनर्वसू-अदिति, तिष्य (पुष्य in अथर्व.)-बृहस्पति, आश्लेषा (आश्लेषा in अथर्व.)-सर्पाः, मघा-पितरः, फल्गुनी (पूर्वा)-अर्यमा, फल्गुनी (उत्तरा)-भग, हस्त-सवितु, चित्रा (त्वष्टु), निष्टया (स्वाति in अथर्व.)-वायु, विशाखे-इन्द्राग्नी, अनूराधा (or अनुराधा)-मित्र, ज्येष्ठा (रोहिणी in तै. सं.)-इन्द्र, मूल (विचृतौ in तै. सं.)-पितरः (निर्कृति in ब्राह्मण and शाङ्खायनगृह्य and प्रजापति acc. to others), अषाढा (पूर्वा)-आपः, अषाढा (उत्तरा)-विश्वेदेवाः, श्रौणा (श्रवण in अथर्व.)-विष्णु, श्रविष्ठा (or धनिष्ठा)-वसवः, शतभिषक्-वरुण (called इन्द्र in तै. सं.), मोक्षपदा (पूर्वाभाद्रपदा)-अज एकपात्, मोक्षपदा (उत्तरा भाद्रपदा)-अहिर्बुध्न्य, रेवती-पूषन्, अश्वयुक् (अश्विनी)-अश्विनौ, अपभरणी (भरणी in अथर्व.)-यम. The deity of अभिजित् is ब्रह्मा. These are given also in शाङ्खायनगृह्य I. 20, विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 78. 16-17, वैखानसस्मार्त (III. 20). Some give इन्द्र as the deity of चित्रा. In the वेदाङ्गज्योतिष (ऋग्वेदीय), विष्णु ध. सू., शाङ्खा. गृ., भग and अर्यमा are the presiding deities of पूर्वा फल्गुनी and उत्तरा फल्गुनी respectively.

person, for the effective employment of which it was necessary to know a person's name.⁵⁶⁴

Hundreds of names occur in the Vedic Literature, but there are hardly any names directly derived from a nakṣatra. In the Śatapatha (VI. 2. 1. 37) there is an Āsādhi Sauśromateya (son of Aśādha and Suśromatā). Here Aśādha is probably connected with the nakṣatra Aśādhā. It appears therefore that in the times of the brāhmaṇas nakṣatra names were secret and so are not met with. Gradually however nakṣatra names ceased to be secret and became common. For several centuries before the Christian era nakṣatra names were very common. Pāṇini (who cannot be placed later than 300 B. C. and may have flourished some centuries earlier still) gives several rules (IV. 3. 34-37 and VII. 3. 18) for deriving names of males and females from nakṣatras. In IV. 3. 34 he says that names are derived from Śraviṣṭhā, Phālgunī, Anurādhā, Śvāti, Tiṣya, Punarvasu, Hasta, Aśādhā and Bahulā (Kṛttikā) without adding any termination signifying 'born on' (e. g. we have the names Śraviṣṭhaḥ, Phālgunaḥ &c.). In VII. 3. 18 he derives the name Proṣṭhapadaḥ from Proṣṭhapadā. In the Junagadh inscription of Rudradāman (150 A. D.) the brother-in-law of Candragupta Maurya is said to have been a vaiśya named Puṣyagupta (E. I. vol. VIII. p. 43). This shows that in the 4th century B. C. a name was derived from the nakṣatra Puṣya (so the name was nakṣatrāśraya). The Mahābhāṣya (vol. I. p. 231) speaks of boys named Tiṣya and Punarvasu and cites Citrā, Revatī, Rohiṇī as names of women born on these nakṣatras (vol. II. p. 307) and of Caitra as a male (vol. II. p. 128). The Mahābhāṣya speaks of Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty (vol. I. p. 177, vol. II. pp. 34 and 123). Buddhists also had nakṣatra names e. g. Moggaliputta Tissa (where a gotra name and a nakṣatra name from Tiṣya are combined), a parivrājaka Poṭṭhapāda in Dīgha I. p. 187 and III. p. 1 (from the nakṣatra Proṣṭhapadā), Asāda, Phaguna, Svātīguta, Pusarakhita and in the Sāñci inscriptions of 3rd century B. C. (E. I. (vol. II. p. 95). The giving of nakṣatra names continued for centuries after the Christian era. For example, in the Palitana plate of Dhruvasena I dated Valabhi samvat 210 (about 529 A. D.) there is a brāhmaṇa named Viśākha. We have

564. The com. of खादिरयुद्ध says (II. 2. 32) 'वेदिककर्माधमेवत् । नामापरिज्ञाने अभिचारावसिद्धिः फलम्' and देवपाल on काठकयुद्ध 36. 4 says 'प्रयोजनं पराभिचारे क्रियमाणेऽनुच्चारदप्रकटम्'.

names like Puṣyasvāmī, Rohiṇīsvāmī (in the plates of Śivarāja dated 602-3 A. D., in E. I. vol. IX. p. 238). Another way of deriving names from nakṣatras was to form them from the presiding deity of the nakṣatra on which a person was born. A man was called Āgneya, if he was born on Kṛttikā (Agni being its devatā), Maitra (from being born on Anurādhā). In modern times this round-about way is given up and persons are named directly from the names of gods and avatāras (like Rāma).

There is another way of deriving names from nakṣatras set forth in mediæval works on Dharmaśāstra and Jyotiṣa. Each of the 27 nakṣatras is divided into four *pādas* and to each *pāda* a specific letter is assigned (e. g., cū, ce, co and lā for the *pādas* of Āsvini) from which names are derived for persons born in those *pādas* (e. g. Cūdāmaṇi, Cedīśa, Coleśa and Lakṣmaṇa for the four *pādas* of Āsvini).⁵⁶⁵ These names are secret and are even now muttered into the ear of the brahmacāri in Upanayana and are known as the name in the daily saṁdhyā prayer.

Modern works like the Samskāraprakāśa (p. 237) say that four kinds of names may be given viz. devatānāma, māsanāma, nakṣatranāma and vyāvahārikanāma. The first shows that the bearer is the devotee of that devatā. The Nirṇayasindhu⁵⁶⁶ quotes a verse about twelve names derived from the month in which a man was born and adds that the Madanaratna laid down that the names specified in the verse were to be given to the months from Mārgaśīrṣa or Caitra. Such names (of Viṣṇu) are being given now, particularly in Western India, but without regard to the month of birth. So early as in the Bṛhatsaṁhitā of

565. Vide संस्काररत्नमाला p. 859 and संस्कारप्रकाश pp. 239-240 where all the letters for the 27 नक्षत्रs are set out from a work called ज्योतिषार्क and on pp. 860-861 of the former the 112 names (for the 4 पदs of 28 नक्षत्रs) are exemplified. Even so late a work as the धर्मसिन्धु (composed in 1790 A. d.) disapproves of these names as not based on any Vedic authorities 'केचित्तु चूचेचोलाश्विनीयोक्तेत्यादिज्योतिर्ग्रन्थोक्तावकट्टाचक्राहुसारेणान्विन्यादेष्टव्यं चरणेषु चूडामणिश्चोदीशश्चोलेशो लक्ष्मण इत्यादिकानि नाक्षत्रनामानि कुर्वन्ति तन्न श्रौतग्रन्थादिबहुसंमतम् ।' धर्मसिन्धु III परिच्छेद, पूर्वार्ध.

566. स्मृतिसंग्रहे । कुण्डोन्नतोऽनुत्तश्चक्री वैकुण्ठोथ जनार्दन । उपेन्द्रो यज्ञपुरषो वासुदेवस्तथा हरिः । योगीशः पुण्डरीकाक्षो मासनानाम्यलुक्रमत् ॥ अत्र मार्गशीर्षादिश्वेत्त्रादिर्वा क्रम इति मदनरत्ने । निर्णयसिन्धु परिच्छेद III पूर्वार्ध. The verse quoted occurs in the Saunaka Kārikās (Ms. in Bombay University Library) as one of Garga. The Laghu-Āśvalāyana-smṛti (Ānand.ed.) VI. 2 speaks of मासनानामs beginning from मार्गशीर्ष.

Varāhamihira the twelve names of Viṣṇu are associated with the twelve months.⁵⁶⁷

As to the names of girls, some special rules were laid down. Many gṛhyasūtras say that the names of girls should contain an uneven number of syllables and the Mānava gr. (I. 18) expressly says that the names of girls should be of three syllables. Pār. and Vārāhagṛhya further say that the names of girls should end in 'ā', Gobhila and Mānava say they should end in 'dā' (as in Satyadā, Vasudā, Yaśodā, Narmadā), Śaṅkha-likhita dharmaśūtra and Baijavāpa require that it should end in 'ī', while the Baud.⁵⁶⁸ gr. śeṣa-sūtra says that it should end in a long vowel. The Vārāhagṛhya adds an intricate rule that the name of a girl should have an 'ā' vowel in it and should not be after a river, a nakṣatra or should not be the name of the sun or moon or Pūṣan and should not be one having the idea of 'given by god' as in Devadattā or having the word 'rakṣitā' (as in Buddharakṣitā).⁵⁶⁹ Manu II. 33 prescribes that the names of women should end in a long vowel, should be easy to pronounce, should not suggest any harsh acts, should be perspicuous, should be pleasing to the ear, auspicious and should convey some blessing and in III. 9 Manu and Āp. gr. III. 13 say that one should not marry a girl named after nakṣatras, trees, rivers. In modern times girls frequently bear the names of the great rivers of India (Sindhu, Jāhnavī, Yamunā, Tāpī, Narmadā, Godā, Kṛṣṇā, Kāverī &c.).

It is remarkable that Manu altogether omits the involved rules given by the gṛhya sūtras about naming a boy and prescribes (II. 31-32) two simple rules viz. that the names of all the members of the four varṇas should suggest respectively auspiciousness, vigour, wealth and lowness (or contempt) and that the names of brāhmanas and the other varṇas should have an addition (upapada) suggestive of śarman (happiness), rakṣā

567. The 12 names are केशव, नारायण, माधव, गोविन्द, विष्णु, मधुसूदन, त्रिविक्रम, वामन, श्रीधर, हृषीकेश, पद्मनाभ, दामोदर.

568. Vide अपरार्क p. 27 for quotations from शङ्खलिखित and वैजवाप. नामैवं कन्याया अकारव्यवधानमाकारान्तमयुग्माक्षरं नदीनक्षत्रचन्द्रसूर्यपूषादेवदत्तरक्षिता-वर्जम् । वाराहयुह्य २.

569. These directions of the Vārāha gr. were not observed in ancient times. The Mahābhāṣya (vol. II. p. 307) mentions women named Citra, Revatī, Advini, also a woman named Devadattā (vol. I. p. 184) and यज्ञदत्ता (vol. III. p. 156) and also देवदत्तिका (or देवका), यज्ञदत्तिका (or यज्ञका) in vol. III. p. 325.

(protection), puṣṭi (prosperity) and preṣya (service or dependence on others). It is significant that none of the grhya-sūtras except Pāraskara⁵⁷⁰ makes any reference to these additions (śarman and the like) to the names of brāhmaṇas and others. Therefore this was comparatively a later development, though such additions must have been in vogue at least two centuries before the Christian era. The Mahābhāṣya⁵⁷¹ (vol. III. p. 416) cites Indravarman and Indrapālita as the names of a rājanya and a vaiśya. Yama quoted by Aparārka (p. 27) says⁵⁷² that the names of brāhmaṇas should have the addition of śarma or deva, of kṣatriyas varma or trāta, of vaiśyas bhūti or datta, and of sūdras dāsa. Similar rules are given in the Purāṇas⁵⁷³. These rules were sometime observed, but were often broken from very ancient times as inscriptions show. A striking example of the observance of these rules is contained in the Talgunda Inscription of Kakutsthavarman of the Kadamba family (E. I. vol. VIII. p. 24) where the founder who was a brāhmaṇa is styled Mayūraśarman, but his descendants who were kings had names ending in varman (which was appropriate to kṣatriyas). On the other hand we have frequent breaches of these rules. In the Gupta Inscriptions No. 35 (C. I. I. vol. III, p. 150, at p. 156 the Mandasor Ins. of Yaśodharman of Mālava year 589, 645-46 A. D.) the genealogy of the brāhmaṇa ministers is Śaṣṭhidatta, his son Varāhadāsa, his son Ravikirti (so the upapadas 'datta' and 'dāsa' appropriate to vaiśyas and sūdras respectively were added to brāhmaṇa names). In the Neulpur plate of Śubhakarā of Orissa (8th century A. D., E. I. vol. XV. p. 4) we have several bhaṭṭas whose names end in vardhana, datta and svāmin. In the Nidhanpura plate of Bhāskaravarman (E. I. vol. XIX p. 115) among the numerous donees (who must have been all brāhmaṇas) there are some who are named Śrāddhadāsa, Karkadatta and Merudatta. In the Inscriptions of the Śaka king Dāmiḍa

570. नक्षत्रनामा नदीनामा वृक्षनामाश्च गहिताः । आप. गृ. III. 13; शर्म ब्राह्मणस्य वर्म क्षत्रियस्य शुभेति वैश्यस्य । पारस्कर I. 17. The बौधायनगृह्यशेषसूत्र I. 11. 10 says 'अथाप्युदाहरन्ति-शर्मन्तं ब्राह्मणस्य, वर्मान्तं क्षत्रियस्य, शुभान्तं वैश्यस्य, वृक्षदासान्तं शूद्रस्य दासान्तमेव वा ।'.

571. This is on वार्तिक 2 'भोराजन्यविशं वेति वाच्यम्' on पाणिनि VIII. 2. 83.

572. यमः । शर्मा देवश्च विप्रस्य वर्मा व्राता च भूभुजः । भूतिर्दत्तश्च वैश्यस्य दासः शूद्रस्य कारयेत् ॥ अपरार्क p. 27.

573. e. g. विष्णुपुराण III. 10. 9 शर्मन्ति ब्राह्मणस्योक्तं वर्मेति क्षत्रसंश्रयम् । शुभदासाह्वयं नाम प्रशस्तं वैश्यशूद्रयोः ॥; the संस्कारतत्त्व p. 919 quotes another verse of विष्णुपुराण 'ततश्च नाम कुर्वीत पितैव दक्षमेऽहनि । देवपूर्वं नराख्यं हि शर्मवर्मादिभ्युत्तम् ॥' This is विष्णुपुराण III. 10. 8.

of the year 60 (C. I. I. vol. II. p. 16) his father is called *Valavaḍha* (Balavardhana) and his son *Mitravaḍhana* (Mitravardhana).

A few words may be said about matronymics. A few examples of such names have been given above from Vedic Literature. *Āśv. gr.*⁵⁷⁴ (I. 5. 1.) says that in selecting a bridegroom or bride "one should first examine the family, as has been already said 'those who on the mother's and father's side'". This refers to the *Āśv. Śrauta sūtra* where it is required that both parents of the *brāhmaṇa* at the time of *camasabhakṣaṇa* in *Daśapeya* should be for ten generations perfect in their learning, austerities, and meritorious works and who can be traced to have throughout been of the *brāhmaṇa* class on both sides &c. *Yāj. I. 54* enjoins that one should choose a girl from a great family of *śrotriya*s, which has been famous for ten generations (for learning and character). Therefore when in certain cases a person is named after his mother or after the gotra of his mother's father, all that is intended to be conveyed is that he is descended from worthy male and female ancestors. There is no question in such cases of matriarchy. In the Nasik Inscription No. 2 (E. I. vol. VIII. p. 60) *siri Puṣumāyī* is described as *Vāsīthīputa* and in E. I. vol. VIII. p. 88 the *Ābhira* king *Īśvarasena* is described as *Māḍharīputra*.⁵⁷⁵ In a Scythian Inscription (E. I. vol. X at page 108) we have mention of 'the son of *Bhārgavi*'. In all these cases the mother's gotra name is specially emphasized probably to convey that the mothers were of the bluest blood. Comparatively late writers mention the gotra in which their mother was born (e. g. *Bhavabhūti* who flourished about 700-750 A. D. says that he was a *Kāśyapa* while his mother was a *Jātūkarnī*). From a *Kārikā* in the *Mahābhāṣya* we learn that the great grammarian *Pāṇini* was the son of a *Dākṣī*. *Pāṇini* himself⁵⁷⁶ (IV. 1. 147) delivers a

574. कुलमये परिक्षेत ये मातुतः पितृतश्चेति यथोक्तं पुरस्तात् । आश्व. गृ. I. 5. 1. The आश्व. ओ. सू. IX. 3. 20 has 'ये मातुतः पितृतश्च दक्षपुरुषं समुद्धृष्टा विद्यातपोभ्यां पुण्यैश्च कर्मभिर्येषां मयतो वा ब्राह्मण्यं निनयेयुः पितृतश्चैके'. The printed text reads 'ना ब्राह्मण्यं' which practically conveys the same sense.

575. Vide E. I. vol. XX. p. 6. for other examples of *Māḍharīputa* and *Vāsīthīputa*.

576. सर्वे सर्वपदादेशो दाक्षीपुत्रस्य पाणिनेः । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 75 on पाणिनि (I. 1. 20). पाणिनि was also called *शालातुरीय* (from his place *शालातुर*). Vide *ममह*'s *काव्यालंकार* VI. 62 and *Nogawa* plate of *ध्रुवसेन* II (E. I. vol. VIII at p. 192, dated Gupta era 320 i. e. 649-50 Ad). *Pāṇini* (IV. 3. 94) derives the word *शालातुरीय*.

special rule about the formation of a name for a man from the gotra name of his mother to convey contempt (e. g. Gārgaḥ or Gārgikaḥ, a rogue, from his mother's name Gārgī).⁵⁷⁷ Śāṅkhāyana grhya (I. 25. 2-9, S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 52) prescribes that the father and mother (having bathed themselves and the child) should put on new clothes, that the father should cook a mess of food in the sūtikāgni, that he is to offer oblations to the *tithi* of the boy's birth and to three constellations with their presiding deities, that he is to place in the middle the oblation to the nakṣatra of birth and he should make two other oblations to fire with two mantras and then the 10th oblation is made to Soma with Rg. I. 91. 7. The father pronounces aloud the child's name and causes the brāhmaṇas to say auspicious words.

The Āśv. gr. does not describe Nāmakaraṇa. Many of the other grhyasūtras prescribe that the sūtikāgni is to be removed and the homa for nāmakaraṇa is to be performed in the Aupāsana (grhya) fire. The Bhāradvāja gr.⁵⁷⁸ prescribes the repetition of the Jayā, Abhyātāna and Rāṣṭrabhṛt mantras and the offering of eight oblations of ghrta with the eight mantras 'may Dhātṛ bestow on us wealth' (Āp. M. P. II. 11. 1ff). The Hir. gr. (II. 4. 6-14, S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 214-215) contains similar rules. It prescribes twelve oblations with the mantras 'may Dhātṛ bestow on us wealth' and gives two names (a secret naṣkatra name and an ordinary name) to the boy. The twelve oblations are as follows: four to Dhātṛ, four to Anumati, two to Rākā, two to Sinivālī. According to some a thirteenth oblation to Kuhū was to be offered.

The later works state many details which it is unnecessary to set out. The mother with her child on her lap sits to the right of the father. Some late writers prescribe that the father is to give a secret name to the boy and should spread husked

577. The महाभाष्य gives several Vārtikas on Pāṇini IV. 1. 147 and the Kāśikā remarks 'पितुरसंविज्ञाने मात्रा व्यपदेशोऽपत्यस्य कुत्सा' and गार्गः would mean गार्ग्याः पुत्रः (whose father was unknown).

578. e. g. भारद्वाज यु. I. 26 'दशम्यां स्नातौ मातापुत्रौ छुच्यगारं कुर्वन्त्युपनिर्हरन्त्यौपासनं सूतिकाग्निमतिहरन्ति । अन्तरागारेऽग्निमुपसमाधाय जयाम्बयानान् राष्ट्रभृत इति ह्रस्वैता आहुतीर्ब्रूतेति धाता द्वादश नो रयिसित्यष्टौ । The Jayas are certain mantras (13 in all) which are Tai. S. III. 4. 4. 1 (vide आप. म. पाठ I. 10. 9 'चित्तं च चित्तिश्च ... स्वाहा'), अम्बयानान् are 18 viz. 'अग्निर्वृत्तानामधिपतिः स मावत्स्मिन्' in तै. सं. III. 4. 5. 1; the Rāṣṭrabhṛts are 22 (ऋतावाङ्मृतधाम्ना) in तै. सं. III. 4. 7. 1. Other sūtras specify other mantras from their respective śākhās.

grains of rice in a vessel of bronze, write thereon with a golden pen the words 'salutations to Śrī Gaṇapati' and then write four names of the boy, viz. kuladevatā nāma (such as Yogesvarī-bhakta), then māsanāma (vide note 566 above), a vyāvahārika-nāma, a nakṣatranāma.⁵⁷⁹

Some sūtra works add a detail immediately after Nāma-karṇa. For example, Āsv. gr. (I. 15. 11) says 'when a father returns from a journey he holds in his hands his son's head, mutters the verse 'āṅgād āṅgād &c.' and thrice smells (kisses) his son on the head. Āp. gr. 15. 12⁵⁸⁰ prescribes that on returning from a journey the father should address his son (abhimantraṇa) with the verse 'āṅgād,' should smell the child on the head with the verse 'be thou an axe' and should mutter in his right ear five mantras. These rules have a very ancient origin. The Kauṣītaki Br. Up. II. 11 says that on returning from a journey the father touches the head of a son with the verse 'āṅgād-āṅgād &c.' and takes the name of the boy and also repeats the verse 'āsmā bhava' &c. In the case of the girl there is no smelling of the head nor muttering in the ear, but only address (with a prose formula). This no doubt indicates that greater value was attached to a son than to a daughter, but it also shows that the daughter was not altogether neglected.

Karṇavedha :—(piercing the lobes of the ears of the child). In modern times this is generally done on the 12th day after birth. In the Baud. gr. śeṣa-sūtra (I. 12) karṇavedha is prescribed in the 7th or 8th month, while Brhaspati quoted in Samskāraprakāśa (p. 258) says that it may be performed on the 10th, 12th or 16th⁵⁸¹ day from birth or in the 7th or 10th month from birth. The Sm. C. has a brief note on karṇavedha. The grhya-pariśiṣṭa says that the father sits facing the east in the first half of the day and first addresses the right ear of the boy with the mantra 'Oh gods, may we hear bliss with our ears' (Rg. I. 89. 8) and then also the left ear. If the boy cries honey is to be

579. The संकल्प in नामकरण is 'ममास्य कुमारस्य बीजगर्भसमुद्भवैनोनिवर्हणा-
युर्वचोभिर्वृद्धिग्वहारासिद्धिद्वारा श्रीपरमेश्वरप्रीत्यर्थं नामकरणाख्यं कर्म करिष्ये' संस्कार-
रत्नमाला p. 861.

580. For अङ्गादङ्गात्संभवसि and for अस्मा भव vide note 537 above. In
आप. म. पा. (II. 14. 3) the reading is वेदो वै पुत्रनामासि. The formula for a
daughter is सर्वस्मादात्मनः संभूतासि सा जीव शरदः शतम् (आप. म. पा. II. 14. 10).

581. The संस्काररत्नमाला (p. 873) quotes from मदनरत्न the verse
'प्रथमे सप्तमे वापि अष्टमे दशमे वा । द्वादशे वा प्रकुर्वीत कर्णवेधं शुभावाहम् ॥' Vide
संस्कारकौस्तुभ p. 379 for कर्णवेध.

given to him ; after the rite brāhmaṇas are to be fed. In modern times, generally a goldsmith is called who pierces the lower lobes of the ears with a pointed golden wire and turns it into a ring round the lobes. In the case of girls the left ear is pierced first. That ears of boys were pierced even in ancient times is suggested by a mantra quoted in the Nirukta.⁵⁸² 'He (the teacher) who pierces the ear with truth, without causing pain and yet bestowing ambrosia, should be regarded as one's father and mother'.

Niṣkramaṇa:—(Taking the child out of the house in the open). This is a minor rite. Pār. gr. I. 17 gives the briefest description. Vide also Gobhila II. 8. 1-7 (S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 56-57), Khādīra II. 3. 1-5 (S. B. E. vol. 29 p. 396), Baud. gr. II. 2, Mānava gr. I. 19. 1-6, Kāthaka gr. 37-38.⁵⁸³ This was done according to most authorities in the 4th month after birth. Aparārka (p. 28) quotes a purāṇa that the going out of the house may be done on the 12th day or in the 4th month. According to Pār. gr. the father makes the child⁵⁸⁴ look at the sun pronouncing the verse 'that eye' (Vāj. S. 36. 24). The Mānavagṛhya prescribes that the father cooks a mess of food in milk and offers oblations thereof to the sun with the verses 'the brilliant sun has risen in the east' (Mait. S. 4. 14. 4), 'he is the haṁsa sitting in pure worlds' (Rg. IV. 40. 5=Mait. S. II. 6. 12=Tai. S. I. 8. 15. 2), 'whenever him' (Rg. X. 88. 11) and then he worships the sun with the verse 'that Jātavedas' (Rg. I. 50. 1, it occurs in all Samhitās) and then he should present the child turning its face towards the sun with the verse 'salutation to thee, Oh divine (sun) who hast hundreds of rays and who dispellest darkness, remove the misfortune of my lot and endow me with blessings'; then brāhmaṇas are to be fed and the fee is to be a bull. Baud.

582. निरुक्त II. 4 य आतृणस्य वितथेन कर्णावदुःखं कृण्वन्नमृतं संयच्छन् । तं मन्येत पितरं मातरं च तस्मै न दुष्टैरकतमञ्चनाह ॥. This verse also occurs in Vas. II. 10 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 30. 47; vide शान्तिपर्व 108. 22-23 where there is a very similar verse (यश्चावृणोत्यावितथेन) and मनु II. 144.

583. These two chapters of the काठकशृङ्ग seem to be later additions. The com. ब्राह्मणबल remarks 'निष्क्रमणास्तप्राशनविधिमाचार्यो नाह । श्रोत्रियास्तु पारंपर्येण पठन्ति । तृतीये मासि कर्तव्यं शिशोः सूर्यस्य दर्शनं । चतुर्थे मासि कर्तव्यं तथा चन्द्रस्य दर्शनम् ॥'.

584. चतुर्थे मासि निष्क्रमणिका सूर्यसुदीक्षयति तच्चक्षुरिति । पारस्कर I. 17. The verse is तच्चक्षुर्देवहितं पुरस्ताच्छुक्रमुच्चरत् । पश्येम शरदः शतं जीवेम शरदः शतं शृणुयाम शरदः शतं प्रववाम शरदः शतमदीनाः स्याम शरदः शतं भूयश्च शरदः शतात् । Vide Tai. Ar. 4. 42 for this benediction.

gr. (II. 2) prescribes a homa with eight oblations. Gobhila speaks of candradarśana. It says that on the 3rd *tithi* of the third bright fortnight after birth, the father bathes the child in the morning, worships in the evening the moon with folded hands, then the mother, having dressed the child, hands it with its face to the north from the south to north to the father and herself passes behind the back of the father and stands to the north of him, who worships with the three verses⁵⁸⁵ 'Oh thou whose hair is well parted, thy heart' (Mantrabrāhmaṇa I. 5. 10-12), then the father hands back the son to the mother with the words 'that this son may not come to harm and be torn from his mother'. Then in the following bright fortnights, the father filling his joined hands with water and turning his face towards the moon, lets the water flow out of his joined hands once with the Yajus 'what is the moon' (Mantrabrāhmaṇa I. 5. 13) and twice silently. The Khādiragṛhya has practically the same rules, except that it does not speak of two times. It will be noted that both omit the sight of the sun, but only mention the seeing of the moon, Laghu-Āsvalāyana VII. 1-3 speaks of the performance of ābhyudayaikā śrāddha, then reciting the sūkta from 'svasti no mimitam' (Rg. V. 51. 11) and 'āsu śiśānaḥ' (Rg. X. 103. 1), showing the boy to the sun in the courtyard of one's father-in-law or in that of another and then repeating the verse 'that eye' (Vāj. S. 36. 24). The Sm. C. remarks that those in whose śākhā this rite is not mentioned need not perform it. The Saṁskāraprakāśa pp. 250-256 and Saṁskāraratnamālā pp. 886-888 give an extensive description and make of this saṁskāra a matter of great pomp, festivity and rejoicing. Yama⁵⁸⁶ quoted in Saṁ. Pr. says that seeing the sun and seeing the moon should be done respectively in the 3rd and 4th months from birth.

Annaprāśana :—(making the child eat cooked food for the first time). Vide Āsv. gr. I. 16. 1-6 (S. B. E. vol. 29 p. 183), Śaṁ. gr. I. 27 (S. B. E. vol. 29 p. 54), Āp. gr. 16. 1-2 (S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 283), Pār. gr. I. 19 (S. B. E. vol. 29, pp. 299-300), Hir. gr. II. 5. 1-3 (S. B. E. vol. 30, p. 216), Kāthaka gr. 39. 1-2, Bhār. gr. I. 27, Mānava gr. I. 20. 1-6, Vaik. III. 22. The Gobhila and Khādira gr. omit this saṁskāra. Most smṛtis prescribe the 6th

585. The verse यत्ते सुमीमे हृदयं occurs in आप. स. पा. II. 13. 4.

586. यमः । तत्तत्पुत्रीये कर्तव्यं मासि सूर्यस्य दर्शनम् । चतुर्थे मासि कर्तव्यं शिशो-
श्चन्द्रस्य दर्शनम् ॥ संस्कारप्रकाश p. 250.

month from birth as the time for this samskāra; but Mānava gr. says it may be the 5th or 6th; while Śaṅkha quoted by Aparārka says it should be performed at the end of a year or at the end of six months, according to some⁵⁸⁷. The Kāthaka gr. enjoins the sixth month from birth or the time when the child first strikes teeth. The procedure is very brief in all except Śān. and Pār. Śān. says that the father should prepare food of goat's flesh, or flesh of partridge, or of fish or boiled rice, if he is desirous of nourishment, holy lustre, swiftness or splendour respectively and mix one of them with curds, honey and ghee and should give it to the child to eat with the reciting of the Mahāvyaṛtis (bhūḥ, bhuvaḥ, svaḥ). Then the father is to offer oblations to fire with four verses 'Annapate',⁵⁸⁸ Rg. IV. 12. 4-5 and 'him, Oh Agni, lead to long life and splendour &c'. The father recites over the child the verse Rg. IX. 66. 19 and then sets down the child on northward pointed kuśa grass with Rg. I. 22. 15. The mother is to eat the remnant of the food thus prepared. Āśv. has almost the same rules as to food (omitting fish) but prescribes only one verse 'Annapate'. Āp. gr.⁵⁸⁹ prescribes feeding of brāhmanas, making them give benedictions to the child and then making the child eat only once amess of curds, honey, ghee and boiled rice mixed together, with the recitation of a mantra joined to the three vyārtis singly and collectively and says that according to some the flesh of partridge may also be added. Bhār. says that the method of making a child eat is the same as in Medhājanana and is silent about the food. Pār. gr. (I. 19) prescribes the cooking of sthālīpāka and offering the two ājyabhāgas and then two offerings of ghee with the mantras 'the gods generated'⁵⁹⁰ the goddess of speech &c' (Rg. VIII. 100. 11) and the verse 'may vigour to-day produce for us gifts &c' (Vāj. S. 18. 33). Mānava, Kāthaka and Vaik. are entirely silent about flesh. Kāthaka

587. संवत्सरेऽन्नप्राशनमर्धसंवत्सर इत्येके । शङ्ख. q. by अपराकं p. 28.

588. अन्नपतेऽन्नस्य नो देह्यनमीवस्य शुष्मिणः । प्र प्रदातारं तारिष ऊर्जं नो धेहि द्विपदे चतुष्पदे ॥ तै. सं. IV. 2. 3. 1.

589. भूरपां त्वौषधीनां रसं प्राशयामि । शिवास्त आप ओषधयः सन्त्वनमीवास्त आप ओषधयः सन्त्वसौ । भुवोऽपां त्वौ । सुवरपां त्वौ । भूर्भुवः सुवरपां । आप. म. पा. II. 14. 11-14. After असौ the child's name in the vocative is to be uttered.

590. देवीं वाचमंजनयन्त देवास्तां विश्वरूपाः पशवो वदन्ति । सा नो मन्त्रेषुमूर्जं ब्रूहानां धेनुर्वाग्निस्माद्युपसुदुतैव ॥ ऋ. VIII. 100. 11.

prescribes the cooking of all haviṣya food⁵⁹¹ and the other two works prescribe food cooked in milk.

It will be seen from the above that the principal part of the saṁskāra is making the child taste food. Some writers add homa, feeding of brāhmaṇas, and benedictions. The Saṁskāra-prakāśa (pp. 267-279) and Saṁskāraratnamālā (pp. 891-895) have very detailed notes on this saṁskāra. One interesting matter quoted by Aparārka (p. 28) from Mārkaṇḍeya is that on the day of this ceremony, in front of the gods worshipped in the house, tools and utensils required in various arts and crafts, weapons and śāstras should be spread about and the child should be allowed to crawl among them and what the child seizes at first should be noted and it should be deemed that he is destined to follow that profession for his livelihood which is represented by the thing first touched by him.

Varṣavardhana or *abdapūrti*:—In some of the sūtras provision is made for some ceremonies every month on the day of the birth of the child for one year and on every anniversary of the day of birth throughout life. For example, Gobhila gr. (II. 8. 19-20) says 'every month of the boy's birth for one year or on the parva days of the year he should sacrifice to Agni and Indra, to Heaven and Earth and to the Viśve devas. Having sacrificed to these deities he should sacrifice to the *tithi* and *nakṣatra*'.⁵⁹² The Śān. gr. (I. 25. 10-11 S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 52) similarly says 'having sacrificed in the same way every month on the *tithi* of the child's birth, he sacrifices when one year has expired in the (ordinary) domestic fire'; Baud. gr. III. 7⁵⁹³ prescribes an offering of cooked rice for life (*āyusyacaru*) 'every year, every six months, every four months, every season or every month on the *nakṣatra* of birth'. Kāthaka gr. (36. 12 and 14) prescribes a homa every month after *nāmakaraṇa* for a year in the same way as in *nāmakaraṇa* or *jātakarma* and at the end of the year an offering of the

591. कृत्यरत्नाकर p. 400 quotes a verse 'हविष्येषु यवा मुख्यास्तद्वदु ब्रीहयो मताः । माषकोद्वयगौरादीन् सर्वाभावे विवर्जयेत् ॥' and quotes समयप्रदीप 'प्रथमं यवास्तद्वदभावे ब्रीहयस्तद्वदभावे माषकोद्वयचणकसर्षपमसूरचीनकपित्त्यवर्जमन्यदपि अन्नम्'.

592. कुमारस्य मासि मासि संवत्सरे सांवत्सरिकेषु वा पर्वसु अग्नीन्द्रौ द्यावापृथिव्यौ विश्वान्देवांश्च यजेत । दैवतमिष्ट्वा तिथिं नक्षत्रं च यजेत । गोमिलग्रह्य II. 8. 19-20. The सांवत्सरिकपर्वसु are the *amāvāsya*s of आपाद, कार्तिक and फाल्गुन.

593. आहुताहुकृतिरायुष्यचरः । संवत्सरे षट्सु षट्सु मासेषु चतुर्षु चतुर्षु कृतावृतौ मासि मासि वा कुमारस्य जन्मनक्षत्रे क्रियेत । बौ. य. III. 7. 1-2.

flesh of a goat and sheep to Agni and Dhanvantari and feeding the brāhmaṇas with food mixed with plenty of ghee. Vaik. III. 20-21 speaks at great length of the ceremony called 'Varṣavardhana' (increase of the years of a person) to be performed on the anniversary of the birth-day every year and lays down that in this rite the deity of the nakṣatra on which a child is born is the principal one, that oblations of ghee are to be offered to that deity and nakṣatra and then to the other presiding deities of the nakṣatras and to the nakṣatras themselves, then an oblation with the vyāhṛti (bhūḥ svāhā), then offerings to Dhātā. It describes in detail how different ceremonies are to be performed up to Upanayana, then up to finishing of Veda study, how ceremonies are to be performed on the anniversary day of one's marriage, on the nakṣatra on which a person performed solemn sacrifices like Agniṣṭoma and that if he thus lives till 80 years and 8 months he becomes one who has seen a thousand (full) moons and is called 'brahma-śarīra', in celebration of which several ceremonies are prescribed (which for want of space are not set out here). In connection with the anniversary of the marriage day,⁵⁹⁴ Vaik. specially prescribes that whatever ceremonies women direct as done traditionally should be performed. Aparārka (p. 29) quotes verses of Mārkaṇḍeya to the effect that all should every year on the day of birth celebrate a festival (mahotsava) in which one should honour and worship one's elders, Agni, gods, Prajāpati, the *pitrs*, one's nakṣatra of birth and brāhmaṇas. The Kṛtyaratnākara (p. 540), the Nityācārapaddhati (pp. 621-624) quote the same verses (as Aparārka does) and add that on that day one should worship Mārkaṇḍeya (who is believed to be immortal) and the seven other *cirajīvins*.⁵⁹⁵ The Nityācārapaddhati (p. 621) quotes a verse that in the case of kings the anniversary of the day on which they were crowned should be celebrated. The Nirṇayasindhu, the Samskāraprakāśa (which in pp. 281-294 gives the most elaborate treatment) call

594. यदह्नि विवाहो भवति मासिके वार्षिके चाह्नि तस्मिन् यत्त्रिय आहुः पारंपर्यागतं शिष्टाचारं तत्तत्करोति । वैखानस III. 21. आप. घ. सू. II. 1. 1. 7 also speaks of the anniversary of the day of marriage 'यच्चैनयोः मित्रं स्यात्तदेतस्मिन्नहनि मुञ्जीयाताम्'.

595. The नित्याचारपद्धति has these verses 'अश्वत्थामा बलिर्व्यासो हनूमाश्च विभीषणः । कृपः परशुरामश्च सप्तैते चिरजीविनः । सप्तैतान्यः स्मरेजित्वं मार्कण्डेयमथाष्टमम् । जीवेद्वर्षशतं सायं सर्वस्याधिविचरितः ॥'. The निर्यणसिन्धु quotes some verses from the कृत्यचिन्तामणि about मार्कण्डेय.

this festival 'abdapūrti'. The Saṁskāraratanamālā contains a very extensive discourse on this rite (pp. 877-886) and calls this festival 'āyurvārdhāpana'. The Nīrpayasindhu and the Saṁskāraratanamālā set out the verses that are addressed to Mārkaṇḍeya and others. In modern times women do celebrate every month the birthday of a child and the first anniversary of birth. They make the child cling to the principal house-post or to the post used for churning out butter from the pail of curds and water.

Caula or *Cūḍākarma* or *Cūḍākaraṇa* :—(the first cutting of the hair on the child's head). This saṁskāra is mentioned by every writer. 'Cūḍā' means the 'lock or tuft of hair' kept on the head when the remaining part is shaved (i. e. the śikhā); so cūḍākarma or cūḍākaraṇa means that rite in which a lock of hair is kept (for the first time after birth). We get 'cauḍa' from 'cūḍā'⁵⁹⁶ meaning 'a rite the purpose of which is keeping a lock of hair' and 'ḍa' and 'la' often interchange places. So we get 'cauḍa' or 'caula' also as the name of the ceremony.

According to many⁵⁹⁷ writers caula was performed in the third year from birth. Baud. gr. (II. 4), Pār. gr. (II. 1), Manu II. 35, Vaik. III. 23 say that it may be performed in the 1st or 3rd year; Āśv. gr. and Vārāha gr. say it may be performed in the 3rd year or in the year in which it is the custom of the family to perform it. Pār. also refers to family usage. Yāj. specifies no year, but mentions only family usage. Yama quoted by Aparārka (p. 29) allowed it in the first, 2nd or 3rd year, while Śaṅkha-Likhita allowed it in the 3rd or 5th (Aparārka p. 29), Śaḍ-guru-śiṣya quoted in the Saṁskāraprakāśa (p. 296) and Nārāyaṇa (on Āśv. gr. I. 17. 1) say that some performed it at the time of upanayana.

596. स च चूडाकरणशब्दः कर्मनामधेयम् । यौगिकन्यायेनोद्भिदादिशब्दवत् । योगश्च, चूडायाः करणं चूडार्थं करणं चूडा क्रियते यस्मिन्कर्मणीति वा त्रिधैव संभवति । संस्कारप्रकाश p. 295. The महाभाष्य (vol. II. p. 362 on pā. V. 1. 97) explains it as 'चूडा प्रयोजनस्य चोदम्' and we know from works on poetics that 'यमकश्लेषचित्रेषु वचनोर्द्वयोर्न भिन्नम्' (there is no distinction between 'ba' and 'va' or ḍa and la in Yamaka, paronomasia and citrakāvya).

597. Vide Āśv. gr. I. 17. 1-18 (S. B. E. 29 pp. 184-186), Āp. gr. 16. 3-11 (S. B. E. vol. 30 pp. 283-84), Gobhila II. 9. 1-29 (S. B. E. 30 pp. 60-63), Hir. gr. II. 5. 1-15 (S. B. E. 30 pp. 216-218), Kāṭhaka gr. 40, Khādīra II. 3.16-33 (S. B. E. 29 pp. 597-599), Pār. I II. (S. B. E. 29 pp. 301-303), Śaṅ. (I. 28. S. B. E. 29. pp. 55-57), Baud. gr. II. 4, Mānava gr. I. 21. 1-12, Vaik. III. 23 for a treatment of this topic.

Whether such a ceremony was performed in the Vedic ages cannot be ascertained with certainty. Bhār. gr. I. 28 expressly⁵⁹⁸ refers to the Vedic verse (Rg. IV. 75. 17 or Tai. S. IV. 6. 4. 5) as indicative of the practice of Caula in Vedic times 'where arrows fall together like boys having many tufts of hair'. Manu II. 35 also has in view this Vedic verse.

The principal act in this ceremony is the cutting of the hair of the child. The other subsidiary matters are the performance of homa, feeding of brāhmaṇas, receiving of their benedictions and giving of dakṣiṇā, the disposal of cut hair in such a way that no one can find them.

The ceremony is to be performed on an auspicious day as set out in note 494 above. Āp. gr. 16. 3 says it should be performed when the moon is in conjunction with Punarvasu nakṣatra, while Mānava gr. says that it should not be done on the 9th *tithi* of a month. Later works like the Samskāraprakāśa (pp. 299-315) give very intricate rules about the auspicious times, which rules are passed over here. The most exhaustive treatment of this ceremony in the sūtra works is to be found in Āśv., Gobhila, Vārāha 4 and Pār. II. 1.

The materials required in this ceremony are stated as follows:—(1) To the north of the fire are placed four vessels each of which is separately filled with rice, barley, māṣa beans and sesame respectively (Āśv. gr. I. 17. 2), but Gobhila (II. 9. 6-7) says that they are to be placed to the east and Gobhila and Śaṅ. say that these are to be given to the barber at the end of the rite; (2) to the west of the fire the mother with the boy on her lap is to be seated and two vessels one filled with the dung of a bull and the other with *śamī* leaves are to be also placed to the west (Gobhila II. 9. 5 and Khādīra II. 3. 18 place the dung to the north of the fire and Khādīra says that she sits to the north); (3) to the right of the mother the father sits holding 21 bunches⁵⁹⁹ of kuśa grass or the brahmā priest (if there be any) may hold them ; (4) warm and cold water or only warm water ; (5) an ordinary razor or one made of Udumbara wood (according to Khādīra II. 3. 17 and Gobhila II. 9. 4); (6) a

598. अथास्ये सांवत्सरिकस्य चौदं कुर्वन्ति यथर्षि यथोपज्ञं वा । विज्ञायते च । यत्र चाणाः संपवन्ति कुमारा विशिखा इव । इति बहुशिखा इवेति । भारद्वाज गृ. I. 28.

599. 21 bunches are required because he cuts off the hair four times on the right side and three times on the left side and each time three kuśa bunches are required.

mirror (Gobhila and Khādira). According to Gobhila and Khādira the barber, hot water, mirror, razor and bunches of kuśa grass are to the south of the fire and bull's dung and a mess of rice mixed with sesame are to the north of the fire. Āśv., Pār., Kāṭhaka and Mānava say that the razor is to be of *loha* (which the commentator Nārāyaṇa explains as copper).

After homa is performed, the principal matter (of cutting the hair) is to be begun. According to Gobhila and Khādira the father, having contemplated upon Savitr, looks at the barber with the mantra 'here comes Savitr' (Mantra-br. I. 6. 1) and contemplating on Vāyu looks at the warm water with the mantra 'with warm water, Oh Vāyu, come hither' (Mantra-Br. I. 6. 2). The father then mixes the hot and cold water and may put, in a part of the water, butter or drops of curds and apply the water to moisten three times the boy's head with the *mantra* 'may Aditi cut thy hair; may the waters moisten (thy hair) for vigour'. Then⁶⁰⁰ on the right portion of the boy's hair the father puts three kuśa bunches with the points towards the boy with the formula 'herb, protect him' (Tai. S. I. 2. 1. 1). With the words 'Axe, do not harm him' (Tai. S. I. 2. 1. 1) he presses a copper razor (on the kuśa blades). The hair is cut with the *mantra* 'with that razor with which Savitr, the wise, cut (the hair) of king Soma and of Varuṇa, cut now his (the boy's hair), Oh brāhmaṇas, so that he may be endowed with long life and (reach) old age'. Each time the hair is cut, he gives⁶⁰¹ the cut hair with their ends turned towards the east together with śamī leaves to the mother, who puts them down on the bull dung. Cutting is done a second time with the mantra 'with what Dhātā shaved (the head) of Brhaspati, Agni and Indra for the

600. The several sūtras generally cite different mantras at the time of the performance of the several acts. It is not possible for want of space to set out all these different verses. Only the mantras used in the Āśv. gr. are cited in order to convey some idea of the rite as it was practised in ancient times.

601. It appears that originally the father himself performed the cutting of the hair. Some of the grhya sūtras like those of Baud. and Śaṅ. nowhere mention the barber in this ceremony. Hence it appears that later on the father performed only the homa and repeated the mantras, while a barber was employed to shave the boy's head. 'तेन यश्रुदानं कासयिता पित्रादिः स एव वपनकर्तृति सिद्धं भवति । इदानीं तु तादृशशिक्षाया अमावाह्योक्तिद्विष्टत्वाच्च समन्त्रकं चेष्टामात्रं कृत्वा नापितेनैव वपनं कारयन्ति सिद्धाः ॥' संस्काररत्नमाला p. 901.

sake of their long life, with that I shave thy (head) for the sake of long life, fame and happiness'. The cutting is done a third time with the mantra 'with what he may after night (is past) see the sun again and again, with that I shave thy (head) for the sake of long life, fame and happiness'. The cutting is done for the fourth time with all the three mantras together. Then the hair is cut three times on the left side similarly. The edge of the razor is then wiped off with the mantra 'when thou shavest as a shaver the hair (of the boy) with the razor that wounds and is well-shaped purify his head, but do not deprive him of life'. Then he gives orders to the barber 'doing with lukewarm water what has to be done with water, arrange his hair (well) without causing him (the boy) any wound'. Let him have the hair of the boy arranged according to the custom of the family. The rite only (without the mantras) is performed for a girl.⁶⁰²

According to several sūtras, the cut hair placed in the dung of a bull is buried in a cow stable⁶⁰³ or is thrown in a pond or in the vicinity of water (Pār., Bhār.) or is buried at the root of the Udumbara tree (Bhār.) or in a bunch of darbha grass (Baud., Bhār., Gobhila) or in the forest (Gobhila). The Mānava gr. prescribes that as the hair fall down when cut they are gathered by some friendly person. The Kāthaka gr. and Mānava gr. say that the barber gets a sesame cake and a fine piece of cloth, while Vaik. says food is given to him. A bath for the boy is expressly prescribed by Baud. and some others.

There is a great divergence of views about the number of locks of hair to be left on the head and the portion of the head where they are to be left. Baud. gr. says that one or three or five locks⁶⁰⁴ may be left on the head or according to family usage and he further says that some sages say that the locks should

602. All the mantras in Āśv. gr. occur also in Mānava gr., some occur in Baud., Bhār., Pār., and others. The mantras in Āśv. viz उष्णेन वाय, येनावपत्, येन घात, येन भूयश्च, यत्क्षुरेण मर्चयता are आप. म. पा. II. 1. 1, 3-5 and 7 with slight variations. The verse यत्क्षुरेण मर्चयता is almost the same as अथर्ववेद VIII. 2. 17. and Āśv. appears to have adapted it purposely to make it suit the caṭṭa.

603. अथैनं गोमयपिण्डं गोष्ठे उदकान्त उदुम्बरमूले दुर्भस्तम्बे वा निदधाति । भारद्वाज गृ. I. 28; अह्युप्तमेतं सकेशं गोमयपिण्डं निधाय गोष्ठे पल्लवे उदकान्ते वा ॥ पार. गृ. II. 1.

604. अथैनमेकशिखश्चिशिखः पञ्चशिखो वा यथैवैषां कुलधर्मः स्वात् । यथार्थं शिखां निदधातीत्येके । बौ. गृ. II. 4.

be as many as the pravaras invoked by the father.⁶⁰⁵ Āśv. gr., and Pār. gr. say that locks may be kept according to family usage. Āp. gr. says that the locks may in number follow the pravara or they may be kept according to family usage. Gobhila and Khādīra say that the locks should be arranged according to gotra and family usage. Whether they mean by 'gotra' the number of pravaras of the gotra or some rule such as the Kāthaka gives is not clear. The Kāthaka gr. says that the Vasiṣṭhas keep a lock on the right, that persons of Atri and Kāśyapa gotra (or pravara) keep locks both on the right and the left, that the Bhṛguś shaves the entire head, that the Āṅgiras gotra keeps five locks or only a line of hair, while persons of other gotras (like Agastya, Viśvāmitra &c.) keep a śikhā (without any particular number of locks) simply because it is an auspicious sign or one may follow the usage of one's⁶⁰⁶ family. Vaik.⁶⁰⁷ says that the locks may be one, two, three, five or seven according to the pravaras. R̥gveda⁶⁰⁸ VII. 33. 1 refers to the fact that Vasiṣṭhas had a lock of hair on the right side of the head and so the rule of the Kāthaka has a very hoary antiquity behind it. Up to modern times one of the characteristic outward signs of all Hindus was the śikhā (the top-knot). A verse of Devala says that whatever religious act a man does without the *yajñopavīta* or without śikhā is as good as undone and Hārīta rules that a person who cuts off his śikhā through hate or ignorance or foolishness becomes pure only after

605. The pravaras or ṛṣis of the several gotras are generally three but some gotras have one, two or five *pravaras*, but never four. Vide below under marriage for pravara.

606. दक्षिणतः कण्डुः वसिष्ठानाम् । उभयतोऽत्रिकाशयपानाम् । मुण्डा भृगवः । पञ्च-
चूडा अङ्गिरसः । वाजि (राजि ?) मेके । मङ्गलार्थं शिखिनोऽन्ये । यथाकुलधर्मं वा । काठक
श्रृङ्ग 40. 2-8. These sūtras are quoted by अपरार्क p. 29 and by the स्मृतिच-
I. p. 23. The स्मृतिच- in explaining the words मङ्गलार्थं says that some
keep a śikhā of the form and size of the leaf of the Vāṭa tree. The
सं. प्र. p. 316 arranges the sūtras differently and remarks मङ्गलार्थं वाजि
केशपङ्क्तिं कुर्वन्ति । सा च समन्तात् ललाटकर्ममूलस्पर्शिणी मालव भवति । द्विविधेषु
केचन पञ्चाचूडाः केचन पुरश्चूडाः ।

607. ऋषिक्रमेण । स्वस्यैकार्ष-द्वयार्ष-त्रयार्ष-पञ्चार्षसप्तार्षाचूडा विभजेत् । वैखानस
III. 23.

608. श्वित्यञ्चो मा दक्षिणतस्कपद्वा धियंजिन्वासो अभि हि प्र मन्दुः । उत्तिष्ठन् वोचे
परि बहिषो नृच मे दूरादवितवे वसिष्ठाः ॥ ऋ. VII. 33, 1.

performing the *taptakṛcchra* penance.⁶⁰⁹ In the *Mudrārākṣasa* (I.8) there is a reference to the śikhā of Cāṇakya having been kept untied when he was angered by the Nandas. Śabara (on Jaimini I. 3. 2) remarks that the śikhā (its position and locks) is a sign to indicate the gotra and quotes Rg. VI. 75. 17 (*yatra bāṇāḥ &c.* cited above in note 598). Vasiṣṭha (II. 21) prescribes that members of all varṇas (including the śūdra) should arrange their hair according to the fixed usage (of their family) or should shave the whole head except the śikhā. A Vedic passage⁶¹⁰ is 'the head that has no śikhā on it is unholy'. For rules about the śikhā of students vide later on under upanayana. During recent times men, particularly those receiving English education in towns and cities, are forsaking the ancient practice of keeping a śikhā and follow the western method of allowing the hair to grow on the whole head.

In modern times the rite of cūḍākarana generally takes place if at all on the day of Upanayana.

Āśv. gr. (I. 17. 18) expressly says that the ceremony of cūḍākarana was to be performed for girls also, but no Vedic mantras were to be repeated. Manu (II. 66) says that all the ceremonies from jātākarma to caula must be performed at the proper times for girls also in order to purify their bodies but without mantras and Yāj. (I. 13) is to the same effect. Even such late writers as Mitrāmīśra say that the caula of girls may be performed according to the usage of the family and that their hair may be entirely shaved or a śikhā may be kept or there should be no shaving at all.⁶¹¹

In some castes even in modern times girls when mere children are shaved once, it being supposed that the first hair are impure.

Vidyārambha:—The grhya sūtras and dharmasūtras are entirely silent as to what was done for the child's education

609. सद्योपवीतिना भाव्यं सदा वज्राशिखेन च । विशिखो द्युपवीतश्च यत्करोति न तत्कृतम् ॥ देवल; 'शिखां छिन्दन्ति ये मोहाद् द्वेषादज्ञानतोपि वा । तत्कृच्छ्रेण शुद्ध्यन्ति त्रयो वर्णा द्विजातयः ॥' हारीत, both quoted in संस्कारप्रकाश p. 316. लघुहारीत verses 18-19 (Ānand. Ed.) are very similar to the 2nd verse. The first is गोभिलस्मृति I. 4 and is quoted as श्रुत्यु's in स्मृतिच. I. p. 32.

610. अमेध्यं वा एतच्छिरो यदशिखम् । quoted by the commentators on काठकथुख 40. 7.

611. कुमारीचौलेऽपि यथाकुलधर्ममित्यनुवर्तते । ततश्च सर्वमुण्डनं शिखाधारणं अनुण्डनमेव वेति सिध्यति । संस्कारप्रकाश p. 317; एतच्च स्त्रीणामपि । 'स्त्रीशुद्धौ तु शिखां छित्त्वा क्रोधाद् वैराग्यतोऽपि वा । प्राजापत्यं प्रकुर्वीताम्' इति प्रायश्चित्तविधिबलात् । एतत्परिग्रहपक्षे । अत्र देशभेदाद् व्यवस्था दृष्टव्या । स्त्रीणां केशधारणमेव शिखाधारणम् । एतच्चात्मन्त्रकमेव स्त्रीणां कार्यम् । ...होमोपि न । संस्काररत्नमाला p. 904.

between the third year when usually caula was performed and the 8th year (from conception) when the upanayana usually took place (in the case of brāhmanas). They state that rarely upanayana was performed even in the 5th year (as will be shown hereafter). Some faint light is thrown on this matter by the Arthaśāstra of Kauṭilya,⁶¹² which says that the prince after the performance of caula is to engage in the study of the alphabet and of arithmetic, and after his upanayana he is to study the Vedas, *ānvikṣikī* (metaphysics), *vārtā* (agriculture and the science of wealth) and *daṇḍanīti* (the art of government) up till the 16th year when the godāna ceremony is to be performed and after which year he may marry. Kālidāsa also (in Raghuvamśa III. 28) says that prince Aja first mastered the alphabet and then entered into the ocean of (Sanskrit) literature. Bāṇa has⁶¹³ probably the Arthaśāstra in view when he makes prince Candrāpīḍa enter the temple of learning (*vidyā-mandira*) at 6 and remain there till he became sixteen and he (like Milton in his letter to Hartlib) tells us how extensive the ideal curriculum of studies in arts and sciences for the prince was thought to be. In the Uttararāmacarita (Act II) it is said that Kuśa and Lava were taught vidyās other than the Veda after their *caula* and before *upanayana*.

It appears that at least from the early centuries of the Christian era, a ceremony called Vidyārambha (commencement of learning the alphabet) was celebrated. Aparārka (pp. 30-31) and the Sm. C. (I. p. 26) cite verses from the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa⁶¹⁴

612. वृत्तचौलकर्मा लिपिं संख्यानं चोपयुञ्जीत। वृत्तोपनयनस्य यीमान्वीक्षिकीं च शिष्टेभ्यो वार्तामध्यक्षेभ्यो दण्डनीतिं वक्तुमवक्तुम्यः। ब्रह्मचर्यं चाषोडशाद्वर्षात्। अतो गोदानं दारकर्म च। अर्थशास्त्र I. 5.

613. Vide कादम्बरी para 69 for विद्यामन्दिर and para 71 for the various arts and sciences 'पदे वाक्ये प्रमाणे धर्मशास्त्रे राजनीतिषु व्यायामविद्यासु ... सर्वे-ष्वायुधविशेषेषु रथचर्यासु गजघृष्टेषु तुरंगमेषु ... वाद्येषु भरतादिप्रणीतिषु नृत्यशास्त्रेषु नार-दीपप्रभृतिषु गान्धर्ववेदविशेषेषु ... ग्रहगणिते ... वास्तुविद्यास्वायुर्वेदे यन्त्रप्रयोगे ... कथासु नाटकेषु आख्यायिकासु काव्येषु महाभारतपुराणेतद्दिहासरासायणेषु सर्वलिपिषु सर्वदेशभाषासु सर्वशिल्पेषु छन्दःसु अन्येष्वपि कलाविशेषेषु परं कौशलमवप।; vide para 74 about 6 and 16 years.

614. प्राप्तेषु पञ्चमे वर्षे अप्रसुते जनार्दने। षष्ठीं प्रतिपदं चैव वर्जयित्वा तथाष्टमीम्॥ रिक्तां पञ्चदशीं चैव सौरभौमदिनं तथा। एवं सुनिश्चिते काले विद्यारम्भं तु कारयेत्॥ पूजयित्वा हरिं लक्ष्मीं देवीं चैव सरस्वतीम्। स्वविद्यासूत्रकारांश्च स्वां विद्यां च विशेषतः॥ एतेषामेव देवानां नाम्ना तु छुहृयाद्भूतम्। दक्षिणाभिर्द्विजैर्द्वानां कर्तव्यं चात्र पूजनम्॥ प्राङ्मुखो गुरुरासीनो वारुणाशमुखं क्षिप्यम्। अध्यापयेत् प्रथमं द्विजाशीर्भिः सुपूजितम्॥ ततः प्रभृत्यन-ध्यायान्वर्जनीयान् विवर्जयेत्। अपरार्क pp. 30, 31. The विष्णुधर्मोत्तर (quoted in Sm. p. 321) says 'आषाढशुक्लद्वादश्यां शयनं कुरुते हरिः। निद्रां त्यजति काविक्यां तयोः संपूज्यते हरिः॥'.

about vidyārambha as follows: in the fifth year of the child on some day from the 12th of the bright half of Kārtika to the 11th of the bright half of Āṣāḍha, but excluding the 1st, 6th, 8th, 15th tithi or *riktā* tithis (i. e. 4th, 9th and 14th) and Saturday and Tuesday, the ceremony of beginning to learn should be performed. Having worshipped Hari (Viṣṇu), Lakṣmī, Sarasvatī, the sūtra writers of one's *śākhā* and the lore peculiar to one's family, one should offer in the fire oblations of clarified butter to the above mentioned deities and should honour brāhmanas by the payment of dakṣiṇā. The teacher should sit facing the east and the boy should face the west and the teacher should begin to teach the first lesson to the boy who should receive the benedictions of brāhmanas. Thereafter teaching should be stopped on the days of *anadhya* (which will be specified later on).

The Samskāra-prakāśa (pp. 321-325) and Samskāraratnamālā (pp. 904-907) have an extensive note, a considerable part of which is devoted to astrological matters. The Samskāraprakāśa quotes passages from Viśvāmitra, Devala and other sages and works that vidyārambha is performed in the 5th year or in any case before upanayana. It also quotes a verse from Nṛsiṃha that Sarasvatī and Gaṇapati should be worshipped and then the teacher should be honoured. The modern practice is to begin learning the alphabet on an auspicious day, generally the 10th of the bright half of Āśvina, Sarasvatī and Gaṇapati are worshipped, the teacher is honoured and the boy is asked to repeat the words 'om namaḥ siddham' and to write them on a slate and then he is taught the letters ('a', 'ā' &c.) of the alphabet. The Samskāraratnamālā⁶¹⁵ calls this ceremony Akṣarasvīkāra (appropriately enough) and among other texts cites a long prose passage from Garga quoted in the Pārijāta and prescribes a homa also with ājyāhutis to Sarasvatī, Hari, Lakṣmī, Viḡhneśa (Gaṇapati), sūtrakāras and one's vidyā.

615. सरस्वतीपूजनादिप्रकारमाह पारिजाते गर्गः । स्नात्वा शुचौ समे देशे गोचर्ममात्र-
मुपलिप्य सैकतं स्थण्डिलं कृत्वा पलाशशाखया मृदं खनित्वा तत्र सरस्वतीमावाहयेत् ।
सुवनमातः सर्ववाङ्मयरूपे आगच्छागच्छेति । ततः प्रणवेनासनावर्त्यपाद्याचमनयिस्नानवस्त्रगन्ध-
पुष्पाक्षतधूपदीपपायसशुद्धौदनैवेष्टसमर्पणनमस्कारान्कृत्वा विज्ञेशं संपूज्याचार्यं शक्तितो
वञ्जालकारादिभिः पूजयित्वा सरस्वतीविज्ञेशाचार्याभिः प्रदक्षिणीकृत्य प्रणवपूर्वकमक्षर-
मंतरमेत । तत आचार्यादिवन्दनं कृत्वा सरस्वत्यादीनावाहनक्रमेणोद्गासयेद्विद्यावृद्धिर्भवति ।
संस्काररत्नमाला p. 906.

CHAPTER VII

UPANAYANA

This word literally means 'leading or taking near'. But the important question is 'near what'? It appears that it originally meant 'taking near the ācārya' (for instruction); it may have also meant 'introducing the novice to the stage of student-hood'. Some of the grhyasūtras bring out this sense clearly e. g. the Hir. gr. I. 5. 2⁶¹⁶ says "The teacher then makes the boy utter 'I have come unto brahmacarya. Lead me near (initiate me into it). Let me be a student, impelled by the god Savitr'". The Mānava and Kāthaka gr. (41. 1) also use the word upāyana for upanayana and Ādityadarśana on Kāthaka gr. (41. 1) says that upāyana, upanayana, mauñjibandhana, baṭukaraṇa, vratabandha are synonyms.

A few words about the origin and development of this most important saṁskāra would not be out of place here. Comparison with the ancient Zoroastrian scriptures (vide S. B. E. vol. V. pp. 285-290 about the sacred girdle and shirt) and the modern practices among the Parsis of India tend to show that Upanayana goes back to an Indo-Iranian origin. But that subject is outside the scope of this work. Confining ourselves to Indian Literature, we find that already in the Rg. X. 109. 5 the word 'brahmacārī' occurs 'oh gods! he (Bṛhaspati), all pervading one, moves as a brahmacārī pervading all (sacrifices); he is only one part of the gods (i. e. of sacrifices); Bṛhaspati secured by that (i. e. by his service to the gods) a wife (me who am named) Juhū, who was (formerly) taken by Soma'.⁶¹⁷ The

616. अथैनमभिश्याहारयति। ब्रह्मचर्यमागाद्युप मा नयस्व ब्रह्मचारी भवानि देवेन सवित्रा प्रसूतः। हिरण्य. गृ. I. 5. 2 (S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 150); ब्रह्मचर्यमागामिति वाचयति ब्रह्मचार्यसानीति च। पार. गृ. II. 2; vide गोभिलगृह्य II. 10. 21 (S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 65). The phrases ब्रह्मचर्यमागाद्युप and ब्रह्मचार्यसानि occur in the शतपथ XI. 5. 4. 1; vide आप. स. पा. II. 3. 26 for ब्रह्मचर्य...प्रसूतः. निष्वरूप on या. I. 14 remarks 'वेदाध्ययनायाचार्यसमीपनयनमुपनयनं तदेवोपनायनमित्युक्तं छन्दोबुरोधात्। तदर्थं वा कर्म।'. Vide मातृदत्त on हिरण्यकोशियु. I. 1. 1.

617. ब्रह्मचारी चरति वेविषद् विशः स देवानां भवत्येकमङ्ग्यं। तेन जायामन्वविन्दु बृहस्पतिः सोमेन नीतां जुह्वं न देवाः॥ ऋ. X. 109. 5 = अथर्व V. 17. 5. The reference to Soma recalls Rg. X. 85. 45 'सोमो दृद्धन्वर्वाय.' Every girl was supposed to have been under the protection of Soma, Gandharva and Agni before her marriage with a human bridegroom.

word 'upanayana'⁶¹⁸ can be derived and explained in two ways: (1) taking (the boy) near the ācārya, (2) that rite by which the boy is taken to the ācārya. The first sense appears to have been the original one and when an extensive ritual came to be associated with upanayana the second came to be the sense of the word. Such an ancient work as the Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 19 says that upanayana is a saṁskāra (purificatory rite) laid down by revelation for him who seeks learning (i. e. it accepts the second explanation) or this sūtra may mean 'it is a saṁskāra brought about by imparting the śruti (viz. Gāyatrī mantra) to him who seeks learning'. This would mean that upanayana principally is gāyātrīrupadeśa (the imparting of the sacred Gāyatrī mantra). This appears to be suggested by the Vedic passage quoted above (p. 154 f. n. 356) 'he created the brāhmaṇa with Gāyatrī, the kṣatriya with Trīṣṭubh, the vaiśya with Jagatī', and by Kātyāyana Śrauta 'one should initiate the brāhmaṇa with Gāyatrī'. Jaimini⁶¹⁹ also (in VI. 1. 35) propounds the view that upanayana is a saṁskāra and has a seen result viz. thereby the boy is brought near the teacher for learning Veda.

Rg. III. 8. 4⁶²⁰ is a verse that clearly indicates that some of the characteristics of upanayana described in the gṛhya sūtras were well known even then. There the sacrificial post (yūpa) is praised as a young person (i. e. in the language of the later classical rhetoricians there is the first kind of the figure Atīśayokti) 'here comes the youth, well dressed and encircled (the boy by his mekhalā and the post by its raśanā); he, when born, attains eminence; wise sages, full of devotion to the gods in their hearts and entertaining happy thoughts, raise him up'. Here in 'un-nayanti' we have the same root that we have in upanayana. This mantra is employed in the upanayana by several gṛhya sūtras e. g. Āśv. I. 20. 8 (who employs it for

618. तत्रोपनयनशब्दः कर्मनामधेयम् । तच्च यौगिकसद्भिर्द्वय्यायात् । योमश्च भावव्युत्पत्त्या करणव्युत्पत्त्या वेत्याह भारुचिः । स यथा । उप समीपे आचार्यादीनां बहोरीयनं प्रापणमुपनयनम् । समीपे आचार्यादीनां नीयते बहुर्येन तदुपनयनमिति वा । ... तत्र च भावव्युत्पत्तिरेव साधीयसीति गम्यते । श्रौतार्थविधिसंभवात् । संस्कारपक्षात् p. 334.

619. संस्कारस्य तदर्थत्वात् विद्यायां पुरुषश्चातिः । जैमिनि VI. 1. 35; 'विद्यायामेवैवा श्रुतिः (वसन्ते ब्राह्मणमुपनयति) । उपनयनस्य संस्कारस्य तदर्थत्वात् । विद्यार्थमुपाख्यायस्य समीपनानीयते नादृष्टार्थं नापि कर्तुं कुञ्चं वा कर्तुम् । दृष्टार्थमेव सैषा विद्यायां पुरुषश्चातिः । कथमवगम्यते । आचार्यकरणमेतद्वगम्यते । कुतः । आत्मनेपददर्शनात् । शबर.

620. युवा सुवासाः परिवीत अयातस उ श्रयान्भवति जायमानः । तं धीरासः कवय उन्नयन्ति स्वाध्वो मनसा देवयन्तः ॥ ऋ. III. 8. 4. आश्व. गृ. I. 19. 8 prescribes that the boy is to be adorned and is to wear new clothes 'अलंकृतं कुमारं... अहेतव वस्त्रा संवीत' &c. and I. 20. 8 is युवा सुवासाः परिवीत आमादित्यर्धर्चनेन प्रदक्षिणमावर्तयेत्.

making the boy circumambulate) and Pār. II. 2. (prescribes that the mantra is to be recited when tying the girdle round the boy's waist). In the Tai. S. VI.⁶²¹ 3. 10, 5 we have the famous passage referring to the three debts where the words 'brahmacārī' and 'brahmacarya' occur. 'Every brāhmaṇa when born is indebted in three debts viz. in brahmacarya to the sages, in sacrifice to the gods and in offspring to the manes; he indeed becomes free from debts who has a son, who sacrifices and who dwells (with the teacher) as a brahmacārī.'

In the other Vedas and in the Brāhmaṇa literature there is ample material to show what the characteristic features of *upanayana* and brahmacarya were. The whole of Atharvaveda XI. 7 (26 verses) is a hymn containing hyperbolic laudation of the brahmacārī (Vedic student) and brahmacarya. The very first verse⁶²² may be cited as a sample 'The brahmacārī incessantly covering (the world by his glory) roams in the two worlds; the gods have the same thoughts (of grace and favour) about him; he fills his teacher by his austerities'. Verse 3 says 'the teacher leading (the boy) near him makes the brahmacārī like unto a foetus' (here the word 'upanayamānaḥ' occurs). Verse 4 states that the heaven and the earth are the 'samidh' (the fuel stick) of the brahmacārī and that the brahmacārī by his *mekhalā* (girdle), by his samidh and by his life of hard work fills the world with austerities. Verse 6 tells us that the brahmacārī wears the skin of a black antelope and has a long beard; verse 13 says that the brahmacārī offers samidh into fire (or if fire is not available) to the sun, to the moon, to the wind or into waters. This hymn thus brings out most of the characteristic features of the brahmacārī and of *upanayana* (viz. deerskin, *mekhalā*, offering of samidh, begging and a life of hard work and restraint). From the reference to the beard and from the words 'this man (ayam *puruṣaḥ*)' occurring in the Atharvaveda VIII. 1. 1 and elsewhere it appears probable that *upanayana* was performed rather later in those ancient days than in the days of the sūtras.

621. जायमानो ह वै ब्राह्मणस्त्रिभिर्ऋणवां जायते ब्रह्मचार्येण ऋषिभ्यो यज्ञेन देवेभ्यः प्रजया पितृभ्य एष वा अन्तुणो यः पुत्री यज्वा ब्रह्मचारिवासी । ते. सं. VI. 3. 10. 5.

622. ब्रह्मचारीष्णंश्चरति रोदसी उभे तस्मिन्देवाः संमनसो भवन्ति । स दाधार पृथिवीं दिवं च स आचार्यं तपसा पिपति ॥ अथर्ववेद XI. 7. 1. This verse is explained in गोपथब्राह्मण II. 1. आचार्यं उपनयमानो ब्रह्मचारिणं कृणुते गर्भमन्तः । अथर्व XI. 7. 3; the idea is found in Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 16-18 (quoted above p. 189 f. n. 443) and compare ज्ञापयन्ना. XI. 5. 4. 12 'आचार्यो गर्भीभवति हस्तमाधाय दक्षिण्यं । तृतीयस्यां स जायते सावित्र्या सह ब्राह्मणः ॥'. ब्रह्मचार्येति समिधा समिद्धः काष्ठीं पतानो दीक्षितो दीर्घमन्त्रः । अथर्व XI. 7. 6.

In the Tai. Br. III.⁶²³ 10. 11 there is the story of Bharadvāja who remained a brahmachārī for three parts of his life (i. e. till 75) and to whom Indra said that in all that long period of brahmacharya he had mastered only an insignificant portion (three handfuls out of three mountains) of the Vedas, which were endless in extent. The story of Nābhānediṣṭha, son of Manu, who was excluded from ancestral property at a partition made by his brothers, narrated in the Ait. Br. shows ⁶²⁴ that he was a brahmachārī staying with a teacher away from his father's place. The Śat. Br. XI. 5. 4. contains many and almost complete details about the life of *brahmachārins* which bear a very close similarity to those taught in the grhya sūtras. A brief summary is set out below. The boy says 'I have come unto brahmacharya' and 'let me be a brahmachārī'. Then the teacher asks him 'what is your name'; then the teacher takes him near (upanayati); the teacher takes hold of the boy's hand with the words 'you are the brahmachārī of Indra; Agni is your teacher, I am your teacher, N. N. (addressing the boy by his name)'. Then he consigns the boy to (the care of) the elements. The teacher instructs him 'drink water, do work (in the teacher's house), put a fuel stick (on the fire), do not sleep (by day)'. He repeats the Sāvitrī (mantra sacred to Savitrī). Formerly it was repeated a year (after the boy came as a brahmachārī), then at the end of six months, 24 days, 12 days, 3 days; but one should repeat to the brāhmaṇa boy the verse at once (on the very day of upanayana); the teacher repeats it to him first each *pāda* separately, then the half and then the whole. Being a brahmachārī one should not eat honey.⁶²⁵

623. भरद्वाजो ह वै त्रिभिरायुर्भिर्ब्रह्मचर्यमुवाप्तं तं ह... इन्द्र उपब्रज्योवाच । यत्ने चतुर्थमायुर्दद्यां किमेतेन कुर्या इति । ब्रह्मचर्यमिवैतेन चरेयमिति होवाच । तं हि त्रीन् गिरिरूपान-
विज्ञातानिव दृश्यांचकार । तेषां द्वैकस्मिन्सुष्टिनाद्वे स होवाच भरद्वाजेत्यामन्त्र्य वेदा ।
एते । अनन्ता वै वेदाः । एतद्वा एतौस्त्रिभिरायुर्भिरेववोचयाः । अथ त इतरदनूक्तमेव । तै. ब्रा.
III. 10. 11.

624. नाभावेदिष्टं वै मानवं ब्रह्मचर्यं वसन्तं भ्रातरो निरभजन् । सोऽब्रवीद्वैत्य किं मह्य-
मभाकेति । ऐ. ब्रा. 22. 9. This story occurs also in Tai. S. III. 1. 9. 5.

625. ब्रह्मचर्यमागमित्याह । ... ब्रह्मचार्यसानीत्याह । अथैनमाह को नामासीति ।
अथास्य हस्तं गृह्णाति । इन्द्रस्य ब्रह्मचार्यसि अग्निराचार्यस्तवाहमाचार्यस्तवासाविति ।
अथैनं धृत्यः परिददाति । ... अद्भ्यस्त्वौषधीभ्यः परिददामीत्याह । ... अपोऽज्ञान...
कर्म कुरु समिधमाधेहीति मा सुष्टुष्या इति । अथास्मै सवित्रोमन्वाह । तां ह स्मैतां
पुरा संवत्सरेऽवह्नुः । ... । अथ षट्सु मासेषु ... । अथ चतुर्विंशत्यहे अथ द्वाद-
शाहे ... । अथ इषहे । तदपि श्लोको भवति । आचार्यो गर्भी ब्राह्मण इति । सद्यो ह
वा त्वाव ब्राह्मणायानुब्रूयादाग्नेयो वै ब्राह्मणः । ... तं वै पच्छाऽन्वाह अथाध-
र्चशोऽन्वाह अथ कृत्स्नाम् । तदाहुः । न ब्रह्मचारी सन् मध्वस्नीयात् ! । शतपथ
XI. 5. 4. 1-17.

The word 'antevāsi' (lit. one who dwells near a teacher) occurs in the Śaṭ. Br. V. 1. 5. 17 and in the Tai. Up. I. 11. The Śaṭ. Br. (XI. 3. 3. 2) says⁶²⁶ 'he who takes to *brahmacarya* indeed takes upon himself a sacrificial session of long duration.' It further says (XI. 3. 3. 3-6) that the boy when entering upon studenthood approaches giving a fourth part of himself to Agni, Death, the teacher and himself and that by the offering of *samidh* (to fire), by begging and by doing work in the teacher's house respectively he secures freedom from the action of the first three. It also says that after one finishes studenthood and takes the ceremonial bath one should not beg. Vide Gopatha Br. (ed. by Gastra) 2. 3 and Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 53. The Śaṭ. Br. (III. 6. 2. 15) further says 'therefore brahmacārins protect the teacher, his house and his cattle, with the idea that otherwise he might be taken away from them'.⁶²⁷

Janamejaya Pāriksita asks the hamsas (who were the Āhavanīya and Dakṣiṇā fires) 'what is holy' and the latter reply 'It is brahmacarya' (vide Gopatha Br. 2. 5). Gopatha (2. 5) further says 'the period of studenthood for the mastery of all Vedas is 48 years, which, being distributed among the Vedas in four parts, makes brahmacarya last for 12 years, which is the lowest limit; one should practise brahmacarya according to one's ability before taking the ceremonial⁶²⁸ bath.' The same work says that the brahmacāri should fetch *samidhs* every day for worshipping fire and beg and that if he does not do so continuously for seven days he has to undergo upanayana again (2. 6) and that the lady of the house should daily give alms to a brahmacārin with the idea that he may not deprive her of her wealth, of merit due to *iṣṭāpūrta*. It also says that a brahmacāri should not sleep on a cot, should not engage in singing and dancing, should not roam about, should not spit about nor go to a cemetery.⁶²⁹

626. दीर्घसंनं वा पृथ्व्यैति यो ब्रह्मचर्यसुपैति । शतपथ XI. 3. 3. 2. This is quoted in Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 52. The words 'अपोऽज्ञान' refer to sipping water before and after bhojana respectively with the words 'amṛtopastaraṇamasi svāhā' and 'amṛtāpidhānam-asi svāhā.' Vide संस्कारतत्त्व p. 893. These two मन्त्रा occur in आप. न. पा. II. 10. 3-4.

627. तस्माद् ब्रह्मचारिण आचार्य गोपायन्ति गृहान्पशून्नेत्रोऽपहरानिति । शतपथ III. 6. 2. 15.

628. अष्टात्वारिंशद्वर्षं सर्ववेदब्रह्मचर्यं तच्चतुर्धा वेदेषु व्युह्य द्वादशवर्षं ब्रह्मचर्यं द्वादशवर्षाण्यवधार्षमपि रत्नस्यश्चरेद्यथाशक्तिः । गोपथ 2. 5.

629. तस्माद्ब्रह्मचारिणे अहरहर्भिक्षां दद्याद्गृहिणी मा मायमिष्टापूर्तसुकृतद्विषमसकृन्त्यादिति । गोपथिशापी स्वाक्ष गायनो न नर्तनो न सरणो न निष्ठीवेद्...न श्मशान-मामिष्टेद् । गोपथ 2. 5-7.

It appears from the above and from the Upaniṣad passages set out immediately below that originally Upanayana was a very simple matter. The would-be student came to the teacher with a *samidh* in his hand and told the teacher that he desired to enter the stage of studenthood and begged to be allowed to be a brahmacārī living with the teacher. There were no elaborate ceremonies like those described in the gr̥hya sūtras. The word brahmacarya occurs in the Kāṭha, Up. I. 1. 15, Muṇḍaka II. 1. 7, Chāndogya VI. 1. 1 and other Upaniṣads. The Chāndogya and the Br. Up., probably the oldest among the Upaniṣads, furnish very valuable information. That some ceremonies were required before a young boy was admitted as a student even in Upaniṣadic times is clear from the statement in the Chāndogya V. 11. 7⁶³⁰ that when Āsvapati Kekaya was approached by Prācīnaśāla Aupamanyava and four others who carried fuel in their hands (like young students) and who were grown-up householders and theologians, 'he (Āsvapati) without submitting them to the rites of Upanayana began the discourse'. When Satyakāma⁶³¹ Jābāla tells the truth about his gotra to Gautama Hārīdrumata, the latter says 'fetch, dear boy, fuel, I shall initiate you. You have not swerved from the truth' (Chāndogya IV. 4. 5). Similarly in the Br. Up. VI. 2. 7. it is said that former students (i. e. students in former ages) approached (the teacher for brahmacarya) only in words (i. e. without any further solemn rite or ceremony).⁶³² In the most ancient times it is probable that the father himself always taught his son.⁶³³ But it appears that from the times of the Tai. S. and the Brāhmaṇas the student generally went to a guru and stayed in his house (vide note 624 about Nābhānediṣṭha). Uddālaka Āruṇi who was himself a profound philosopher of *brahma* asks his son Śvetaketu to enter upon brahmacarya and sends him to a teacher to learn the Vedas.⁶³⁴ The same Upaniṣad describes the

630. ते ह सनित्याणयः पूर्वाह्निं प्रतिचक्रमिरे तान्हाउपनीयैवैतदुवाच । छान्दोग्य V. 11. 7.

631. समिधं सोमयाहरोप त्वा नेष्ये न सत्यादृगा इति । छान्दोग्य IV. 4. 5.

632. उपैष्यहं भवन्तमिति वाचा ह स्मैव पूर्व उपयन्ति स होपायनकीर्त्योवास । बृह. उ. VI. 2. 7.

633. Vide बृह. उ. VI. 2. 1 'अनुशिष्टोन्वसि पित्रेत्योमिति होवाच.' विश्वरूप on या. I. 15 remarks शुरुग्रहणं तु शुरुयं पितुरुपनेतृत्वमिति । तथा च श्रुतिः । तस्मात्पुत्रमनुशिष्टं लोक्यमाहुरिति । आचार्योपैष्यन्तं तु ब्राह्मणस्यानुकल्पः ।

634. श्वेतकेतुर्होषणेय आस तं ह पितोवाच श्वेतकेतो वस ब्रह्मचर्यं ... स ह द्वादश वर्ष उपेत्य चतुर्विंशतिवर्षः सर्वान्वेदानघटित्य महामना अनुचानमानो स्तब्ध एवाय तं ह पितोवाच श्वेतकेतो ... उत तमादेशमप्राश्यः येनाश्रुतं श्रुतं भवति । छान्दोग्य VI. 1. 1-2.

āśrama of brahmacarya 'dwelling as a brahmacārī in the house of a teacher, mortifying his body in the house of his teacher till his ⁶³⁵ end'. Chāndogya IV. 4. 4. shows that the teacher asked the pupil his gotra (in order that he may address him by that name). The same Upaniṣad shows that the brahmacārī had to beg for food (IV. 3. 5), that he had to look after the fire of his teacher (IV. 10. 1-2) and that he had to tend his cattle (IV. 4. 5). The age when upanayana was performed is not expressly stated in the Upaniṣads except in the case of Śvetaketu who was 12 (vide note 634 above). The period of student-hood was usually twelve (Chāndogya II. 23.1, IV. 10.1, VI.1.2), though the Chāndogya (VIII. 11. 3) speaks of Indra's brahmacarya for 101 years and Chāndogya II. 23. 1. speaks of brahmacarya for life.

We shall now turn to upanayana as described in the sūtras and smṛtis. The following matters fall to be treated under Upanayana: The proper age for upanayana, the auspicious seasons for it; the skin, the garments, the girdle and the staff for the brahmacārins of different varṇas; the yajñopavīta; the preliminaries of upanayana, such as homa, taking of curds by the boy, añjalipūraṇa, āsmārohaṇa; the principal rites of upanayana viz. taking of the student's hand by the teacher, touching the chest of the student expressive of acceptance as pupil, handing the boy to Savitr and other gods (paridāna), instruction in the duties of the student (such as putting fuel on fire, begging &c.), instruction in the famous Sāvitrī mantra; *medhājanana*; study of the Vedas and daily recitation of Vedic texts; special *vratas* of the brahmacārī; *Patitasāvīrika* (those whose upanayana has not been performed at all) and rules about them. These matters will now be dealt with in order. It should be remembered that all these matters are not dwelt upon by all the smṛtis nor are they treated of in the same order. Further the Vedic mantras often differ in the different sūtras.

The proper age for Upanayana

The Āśv. gr. ⁶³⁶ (I. 19. 1-6) says that a brāhmaṇa boy should undergo upanayana in the eighth year from birth or from conception, a kṣatriya in the 11th year, a vaiśya in the

635. छान्दोग्य II. 23. 1. This refers to the नैष्ठिकब्रह्मचारिन्.

636. अष्टमे वर्षे ब्राह्मणमुपनयेत् । गर्भाष्टमे वा । एकादशे क्षत्रियम् । द्वादशे वैश्यम् । आ बोधशाह ब्राह्मणस्यानन्तितः कालः । आ द्वाविंशत्क्षत्रियस्य । आ चतुर्विंशद्वैश्यस्य । भाष्य. सू. I. 19. 1-6.

12th and that to the 16th, 22nd and 24th years respectively for the three varṇas it cannot be said that the time for upanayana has passed. Āp.⁶³⁷ (10. 2), Śāṇ. (II. 1), Baud. (II. 5. 2) and Bhār. (1. 1), Gobhila (II. 10. 1) gṛhya sūtras, Yāj. I. 14, Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 19 expressly say that the respective years are calculated from conception. The Mahābhāṣya⁶³⁸ also refers to the rule that a brāhmaṇa's upanayana is to be performed in the 8th year from conception. Pār.⁶³⁹ gr. (II. 2) allows upanayana in the 8th year from birth or conception and adds that in the case of all varṇas family usage may be followed. Yāj. I. 14 also refers to family usage. Śāṇ. gr. (II. 1. 1) allows upanayana in the 8th or 10th year from conception, the Mānava gr. (I. 22. 1) allows it in the 7th or 9th year, the Kāthaka gr. (41. 1-3) prescribes 7th, 9th and 11th years for the upanayana of the three varṇas respectively. In some smṛtis upanayana is allowed to be performed even earlier or at different ages, e. g. Gautama (I. 6-8) prescribes that upanayana for a brāhmaṇa is in the 8th year from conception but it may be in the 5th or 9th according to the result desired; and Manu. II. 37 says that if spiritual eminence (for the boy) is desired (by his father) then upanayana may be performed in the 5th year for a brāhmaṇa, in the 6th year for a kṣatriya if there is a desire for military power, in the 8th for a vaiśya if there is desire for endeavour to accumulate wealth. Vaik. (II. 3) also prescribes the 5th, 8th, 9th years from conception for a brāhmaṇa if there is a desire respectively for

637. गर्भाष्टमेषु ब्राह्मणमुपनीयते गर्भैकादशेषु राजन्यं गर्भद्वादशेषु वैश्यम् । आप. गृ. 10. 2-3. Vide सं. गृ. pp 340-341 for discussion whether there is option of counting the years from conception or birth in the case of kṣatriyas and vaiśyas. Āp. and several others employ the Ātmanepada 'उपनीयते', while Aśv., Khādīra (II. 2. 1) and Pār. employ the Parasmaipada उपनयेत्. It should be noticed that in the Atharvaveda XI. 7. 3., शतपथ XI. 5. 4. 1, छा. उ. IV. 4. 5 and elsewhere in the Vedic texts it is the Ātmanepada that is found. Pāṇini (I. 3. 36) lays down that the root 'nī' takes the Ātmanepada alone in the case of several senses one of which is आचार्यकरण (and so we should have उपनयेत् only). हरदत्त quotes a कारिका that the परस्मैपद is a mistake 'परस्मैपदपाठोऽयमध्वेतुर्णां प्रमादतः । आचार्यकरणे यस्मात्प्रामोत्यत्रात्मनेपदम् ॥'. Vide संस्कारप्रकाश p. 339 for criticism of हरदत्त's view. Vide शबर quoted above (p. 269 f. n. 619).

638. गर्भाष्टमे ब्राह्मण उपनेय इति सकृदुपनीय कृतः श्रावार्थः । महाभाष्य vol. III. p. 57.

639. अष्टवर्षे ब्राह्मणमुपनयेद्गर्भाष्टमे वैकादशवर्षे राजन्यं द्वादशवर्षे वैश्यं यथामङ्गलं वा सर्वेषाम् । पारस्करगृ. II. 2. 2. जौ. गृ. adds त्रयोदशे मेधाकामं चतुर्दशे शुद्धिकामं पञ्चदशे ब्राह्मणवर्त्तं षोडशे सर्वकाममिति ।

spiritual eminence, long life and wealth. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 21 and Baud. gr. (II. 5) prescribe 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th years respectively for one desiring spiritual eminence, long life, brilliance, abundant food, physical vigour and cattle.

Therefore, the 8th, 11th and 12th years from birth for the three varṇas are the principal time for upanayana; while the years from 5th onwards up to 11th are the secondary time (*gaṇa*) for a brāhmaṇa, 9th to 16th are secondary for kṣatriya and so on. From 12th to 16 is *gaṇatara* for brāhmaṇas and after 16 *gaṇatama* for them. Vide Samskāra-prakāśa p. 342.

The auspicious times according to the Āp. gr. and Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 19, Hir. gr. (I. 1) and Vaik. are vasanta (spring), grīṣma (summer), and śarad (autumn) for the three varṇas. The Bhār. gr. (I. 1) says that upanayana for a brāhmaṇa should be performed in vasanta, for a kṣatriya in summer or hemanta, for a vaiśya in śarad, in the rains for a carpenter (rathakāra) or in śīsira for all. Śabara in his bhāṣya on Jaimini VI. 1. 33 where upanayana is denied to śūdras quotes 'vasante brāhmaṇam upanayita' as a Vedic text. Āsv. gr. I. 4. 1 (quoted above in f. n. 494), Hir. gr. (I. 1. 5, S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 137) and Bhār. gr. (I. 1) say that upanayana should be performed in the bright half of a month, on an auspicious nakṣatra, particularly under a nakṣatra the name of which is masculine.⁶⁴⁰

Later works introduced very intricate rules about the proper months, *tithis*, days and times for upanayana. It is neither possible nor very necessary to go into these astrological details. But a few words must be said as in modern times upanayana is performed only in accordance with these rules. Vṛddhagārgya⁶⁴¹ laid down that six months from Māgha were the proper months for upanayana, while others say that five months from Māgha are the proper ones. Then 1st, 4th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 13th, 14th, 15th i. e. (full moon and new moon) *tithis* are generally avoided (though there are some counter exceptions which are not set out here). It is stated that upanayana should not be performed when Venus is so near the sun that it cannot be seen, when the sun is in the first degree of any zodiacal sign, on *anadhyāya*

640. आपूर्यमाणपक्षे पुण्ये नक्षत्रे विशेषेण पुंनामधेये । भारद्वाज I. 1. For पुंनामधेयनक्षत्र see note 512.

641. मासानाह वृद्धगार्ग्यः । माषादिमासषट्के तु मेखलावस्थानं मतम् । quoted in संस्कारप्रकाश p. 355 ; तथा च ज्योतिःशास्त्रम् । माषादिषु च मासेषु मौखी पञ्चशु सस्यते । एतच्च वर्णत्रयसाधारणम् । स्मृतिच. I. p. 27.

days and on galagraha⁶⁴² (the tithis specified above). Jupiter, Venus, Mars⁶⁴³ and Mercury are respectively the presiding deities of the Rgveda and the other Vedas. Therefore the upanayana of those who have to study these Vedas should be performed on the week days presided over by these planets. Among week days Wednesday, Thursday and Friday are the best, Sunday is middling, Monday is the least suitable, but Tuesday and Saturday are prohibited (except that for students of the Sāmaveda and ksatriyas Tuesday is allowed). Among the nakṣatras⁶⁴⁴ the proper ones are Hasta, Citrā, Svāti, Puṣya, Dhaniṣṭhā, Āśvinī, Mṛgaśīras, Punarvasu, Śravana and Revatī. There are other rules about nakṣatras with respect to those who follow a particular Veda (which are passed over). One rule is that all nakṣatras except Bharanī, Kṛttikā, Maghā, Viśākhā, Jyēṣṭhā, Śatatārakā are good for all. The Moon and Jupiter must be astrologically strong with reference to the boy's horoscope. The rule about Jupiter probably arose from the fact that Jupiter was supposed to rule over knowledge and happiness and as upanayana was meant to be the entrance for Veda-study, Jupiter's benevolent aspect was thought to be necessary. If Jupiter and Venus are not to be seen owing to nearness to the sun, upanayana cannot be performed. Jupiter when in the 2nd, 5th, 7th, 9th, 11th zodiacal sign from the sign of birth (calculation to be made inclusive of the sign of birth) is auspicious, when in the 1st, 3rd, 6th, 10th place from the sign of birth it is auspicious after the performance of a propitiatory homa and when it is in the 4th, 8th, 12th place from birth, it is inauspicious. The moon is supposed to be malefic when she is in the 2nd, 4th, 5th, 8th, 9th or 12th place from the sign of birth. Four hours from sunrise is the best for upanayana, from that time to noon is middling and afternoon is prohibited. Some said that a person's upanayana should not be performed in the month in which he was born, others restricted the prohibition to the pakṣa (the half) of the month in which he was born. There are other rules about the Lagna (the rising

642. नष्टे चन्द्रेऽस्तगे शुके निरंशे चैव भास्करे । कर्तव्यमौपनयनं नानव्याये गलग्रहे ॥
..... त्रयोदशीचतुष्कं तु सप्तम्यादित्रयं तथा । चतुष्टयेकादशी प्रोक्ता अष्टावते गलग्रहाः ॥
स्मृतिच. I. p. 27 ; अपरार्क p. 32 cites the first as from पुराण.

643. The निर्णयसिन्धु quotes नारद as to गलग्रह differently 'कुब्जपक्षे चतुर्थी च सप्तम्यादिदिनत्रयम् । त्रयोदशीचतुष्कं च अष्टावते गलग्रहाः ॥'. शुक्रवैद्यमुते धात्रीपुत्रः शशधरामजः । स्मुरते क्रम्यजुःसामाथर्वणामधिपाः क्रमात् ॥ स्मृतिच. I. p. 27.

644. हस्ताम्रये पुण्यधनिष्ठयोश्च पौष्णाश्विनौर्ग्राह्यौदितिचिण्डनेषु । शस्ते त्रिषौ चन्द्र-
बलोपशुको कार्यौ द्विजानाहुपनायनो विधिः ॥ अपरार्क p. 32, स्मृतिच. I. p. 27.

zodiacal sign at the time of upanayana) which are not set out here. There are other prohibited astrological conjunctions like Vyatipāta, Vaidhrti &c. For detailed rules on these, works like the Sam. Pr. (pp. 355-385), Nirṇayasindhu and Dharmasindhu may be consulted.

For persons who are entitled to perform the upanayana of a boy, vide note 480.

A brahmacārī had to wear two garments, one for the lower part of the body (vāsas), another for covering the upper part of the body (uttariya). Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 2. 39-I. 1. 3. 1-2) says that 'the garment⁶⁴⁵ (vāsas) for a brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya or vaiśya brahmacārī is respectively to be made of hemp, flax, ajina (deerskin), some teachers prescribe that the lower garment should be of cotton but coloured reddish-yellow for brāhmaṇas; dyed with madder for kṣatriyas, dyed with turmeric for vaiśyas.' Pār. gr. (II. 5), Manu (II. 41) speak of 'āvika' (made of wool) for vaiśya instead of 'ajina'. Vas. Dh. S. (XI. 64-67) says that a brāhmaṇa (brahmacārī) should wear a (lower) garment which is white and unblemished (or new) and for a kṣatriya or vaiśya it should be the same as in Āp. Dh., but for vaiśya Vas. prescribes also one made of kuśa grass or he says that all should wear cotton cloth that is undyed.' Gaut. (I. 17-20) on the other hand says 'for all the lower garment may be made of hemp, flax or kuśa grass (cīra) or of the hair of the mountainous goat (kutapa); other teachers prescribe coloured garments, one coloured with the juice of trees for brāhmaṇas and madder-red and yellow for kṣatriya and vaiśya. Āśv. gr. (I. 19. 8), Pār. gr. (II. 5), Vas. Dh. S. (XI. 61-63), Baud. gr. (II. 5. 16) say that the upper garment for a brāhmaṇa should be the skin of a black deer, for kṣatriya the skin of *ruru* deer and for a vaiśya of cow-skin or of goat skin. Baud. and Āśv. prescribe only goat skin. Pār. gr. adds that if any one cannot secure a skin suited to one's varṇa, he may wear an upper garment of cow-hide as the cow is the chief among animals.⁶⁴⁶ Baud. gr. II. 5. 16 prescribes the skin of black deer for all in the same

645. वासः । शाणिकौमाजिनानि । काषायं चैके वस्त्रमुपदिशन्ति । माजिष्ठं राजन्यस्य । हारिद्रं वैश्यस्य । आप. घ. 1. 1. 2. 39-41-I. 1. 3. 1-2; छुक्कमहतं वासो ब्राह्मणस्य । माजिष्ठं क्षत्रियस्य । हारिद्रं कौशेयं वा वैश्यस्य । सर्वेषां वा तान्तवमरक्तम् । वसिष्ठ XI. 64-67; what is अहत by प्रचेतस् 'हृषद्भौतं नवं श्वेतं सदर्शं यत्र धारितम् । अहतं तद् विजानीयात्सर्वकर्मसु पावनम्' quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 29.

646. वेणेयमजिनमुत्तरीयं ब्राह्मणस्य रौरवं राजन्यस्याजं गव्यं वा वैश्यस्य सर्वेषां वा गव्यमसति प्रधानत्वाद् । पारस्कर II. 5.

circumstances. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 3. 7-8) gives the option to all varṇas to use a sheep skin (as upper garment) or a woollen plaid (*kambala*). Āśv. gr. (I. 19. 8-9) appears to suggest that the lower and upper garments may be of the same skin or that the lower garment may be white or coloured (as stated above by Āp. Dh. S.). The Kāṭhaka gr.⁶⁴⁷ (41. 13) says that the upper garment for the three varṇas should be respectively of the skins of black deer, tiger and *ruru* deer. A vestige of these rules survives in the modern practice of tying a small piece of deer skin to the yajñopavita of the boy when his upanayana is performed.

That the rules about the lower and upper garments go back to great antiquity is shown by a reference to a Brāhmaṇa passage in the Āp. Dh. S.⁶⁴⁸ I. 1. 3. 9 'one should wear only deer-skin (as lower and upper garments) if one desires the increase of Vedic lore, only (cotton) garments if one desires the increase of martial valour and both if one desires both'.

Daṇḍa (staff):—There is some divergence of view about the trees of which the staff was to be made. Āśv. gr. (I. 19. 13 and I. 20. 1) says 'a staff of the palāśa wood for a brāhmaṇa, of udumbara for a kṣatriya and of bilva for a vaiśya or all the varṇas may employ a staff of any of these trees.' The Āp. gr. 11. 15-16 (this is the same as Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 2. 38) says that the staff should be of palāśa wood for a brāhmaṇa, of the branch of the nyagrodha tree (so that the downward end of the branch forms the tip of the staff) for a kṣatriya, of *badara* or *udumbara* wood for a vaiśya; while some teachers say that the staff should be made of a tree (which is used in sacrifices) without reference to any varṇa. Gaut. (I. 21) and Baud. Dh. S. (II. 5. 17) say that the staff of palāśa or bilva should be used for brāhmaṇa and Gaut. (I. 22-23) says that aśvattha and pilu wood staff should be used respectively for kṣatriya and vaiśya or of any sacrificial tree for all varṇas. Baud. gr. prescribes nyagrodha or rauhitaka for kṣatriya, and badara or udumbara for vaiśya. Pār. gr.

647. ऐणेयं चर्म ब्राह्मणाय प्रयच्छति वैयाघ्रं राजन्याय रौरवं वैश्याय । काठकयुद्ध 41. 13.

648. ब्रह्मवृद्धिमिच्छन्नजिनान्येव वसीत क्षत्रवृद्धिमिच्छन्वस्त्राण्येवोभयवृद्धिमिच्छन् भयमिति हि ब्राह्मणम् । अजिनं त्वेवोत्तरं धारयेत् । आप. घ. I. 1. 3. 9-10; compare भारद्वाजयुद्ध I. 1 यदजिनं धारयेद्ब्रह्मवर्चसवद्भासो धारयेत्क्षत्रवर्धयेदुभयं धारयेदुभयोर्बृद्ध्या इति विज्ञायते ।; compare the गोपथब्रा. 2. 4 न तान्तर्वं वसीत यस्तान्तर्वं वस्ते क्षत्रं वर्धते न ब्रह्म तस्मात्तान्तर्वं न वसीत ब्रह्म वर्धतां मा क्षत्रमिति ।

(IL 5) recommends a staff of palāśa, bilva and udumbara respectively for the three varṇas (or any of these for all). Kāthaka gr. (41. 22) recommends palāśa, aśvattha and nyagrodha respectively for the three. Manu (II. 45) prescribes bilva and palāśa for brāhmaṇa, vaṭa and khadira for kṣatriya, pīlu and udumbara for vaiśya, and Kulluka adds that two staffs should be used by the boy, as two are recommended in a compound.

The staff was required for support, for controlling the cattle of the teacher (which the student was to tend), for protection when going out at night and for guidance when entering a river or the like.⁶⁴⁹

The length of the staff varied according to the varṇa of the boy. Āśv. gr. I. 19. 13, Gaut. I. 25, Vas. Dh. S. (XI. 55-57), Pār. gr. (IL 5), Manu (II. 46) prescribe that in the case of the brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya or vaiśya boy respectively the staff should be as high as his head, forehead or the tip of the nose. The Śān. gr. (II. 1. 21-23, S. B. E. vol. 29. p. 260) on the other hand reverses this (the brāhmaṇa having the shortest staff and the vaiśya the longest). Gaut. I. 26 says that the staff should be one not eaten by worms, should have the bark attached to it, and should have a curved tip, while Manu II. 47 adds that the staff should be straight, pleasing to look at and should not have come into contact with fire. The Śān. gr. (II. 13. 2-3) prescribes that the brahmacārī should not allow any one to pass between himself and his staff and that if the staff, girdle or the yajñopavīta break or rend, he has to undergo a penance (same as the one for the breaking of a chariot at a wedding procession) and that at the end of the period of brahmacarya, he should sacrifice in water the yajñopavīta, staff, the girdle and the skin⁶⁵⁰ with a mantra to Varuṇa (Rg. I. 24. 6) or with the sacred syllable 'om'. Manu II. 64 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. (27. 29) say the same thing.

Mekhalū (girdle):—Gaut. (I. 15), Āśv. gr. (I. 19. 11), Baud. gr. (II. 5. 13), Manu II. 42, Kāthaka gr. (41. 12), Bhār. gr. (I. 2) and others prescribe that a girdle made of muñja grass should be

649. दण्डाजिनोपवितानि मेखलां चैव धारयेत् । या. I. 29; 'तत्र दण्डस्य कार्यमवलम्बनं यवादिनिवारणं तमोवगाहनसंस्तु प्रवेशनमित्यादि' अपरार्कः. As the carrying of a staff has a seen result, it need not be carried at all times, according to Aparārka (p. 57), but the others having unseen results must be worn always.

650. उपवीतं च दण्डे बध्नाति । तदप्येतत् । यज्ञोपवीतदण्डं च मेखलामजिनं तथा । जुहुयादप्यु व्रते पूर्णे वारण्यर्चा रसेन । शा. सू. II. 30. 31. रस means 'ओम्'.

tied round a brāhmaṇa boy's waist, one made of mūrvā grass (which is used for making a bowstring) for a kṣatriya and one of hemp cords for a vaiśya. Pāraskara says that the string of a bow should be used for a kṣatriya and of mūrvā grass for a vaiśya and adds that in the absence of these the girdle should respectively be made of kuśa, āśmantaka and balvaja grass (for brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya and vaiśya). Manu (II. 42-43) gives the same rules as Pār. gr. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1.2. 35-37) ⁶⁵¹ optionally allows a girdle of muñja grass with an iron piece intertwined in it for kṣatriyas and woollen string or the yoke-string or a string of tāmala bark for vaiśyas (according to some). Baud. gr. (II. 5. 13) allows mauñji girdle also to all. Some of the sūtras (e. g. Baud. gr., Āp. Dh. S.) further prescribe that the girdle of muñja grass should have three strings to it and the grass should have its ends turned to the right and the knot of the girdle should be brought near the navel. Manu (II. 43) says that there may be one knot or three or five (according to family usage, says Kullūka). ⁶⁵²

In order to convey an idea of the rites of upanayana in the days of the grhya sūtras the ceremony as contained in the Āśv. gr. sūtra (which is among the shortest) is set out in full. ⁶⁵³ 'Let him initiate the boy who is decked, whose hair (on the head) is shaved (and arranged), who wears a new garment or an antelope skin if a brāhmaṇa, ruru skin if a kṣatriya, goat's skin if a vaiśya; if they put on garments they should put on dyed ones, reddish-yellow, red and yellow (for a brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya, vaiśya respectively), they should have girdles and staffs (as described above). While the boy takes hold of (the hand of) his teacher, the latter offers (a homa of clarified butter oblations) in the fire (as described above) and seats himself to the north of the fire with his face turned to the east, while the other one (the boy) stations himself in front (of the teacher) with his face turned to the west. The teacher then fills the folded hands of both himself and of the boy with water and with the verse 'we choose that of Savitr' (Rg. V. 82. 1) the teacher drops down the water in his own folded hands on to the water in the folded

651. ज्या राजन्यस्य मौञ्जी वायोमिश्रा । आवीक्ष्णं वैश्यस्य । सैरी तामली वेत्येके । आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 2. 34-37. तामल is explained as जण (hemp) in the com. on गोमिल II. 10. 10 and by हरदत्त as 'तामलो मूलोदकसंज्ञो वृक्षः । तस्य त्वचा ग्रथिता तामली'.

652. The number of knots was probably regulated by the number of the pravara sages invoked by a person.

653. Vide Appendix for the text of Āśv. gr. and for a very concise form prepared recently.

hands of the boy; having thus poured the water, he should seize with his own hand the boy's hand together with the thumb (of the boy) with the formula 'by the urge (or order) of the god Savitr, with the arms of the two Āsvins, with the hands of Pūṣan, I seize thy hand, oh! so and so',⁶⁵³ with the words 'Savitr has seized thy hand, oh so and so' a second time (the teacher seizes the boy's hand); with the words 'Agni is thy teacher, oh so and so' a third time. The teacher should cause (the boy) to look at the sun, while the teacher repeats 'God Savitr! this is thy brahmacārī, protect him, may he not die'⁶⁵⁴ and (the teacher should further) say 'Whose brahmacārī art thou? thou art the brahmacārī of Prāṇa. Who does initiate thee and whom (does he initiate)? I give⁶⁵⁵ thee to Ka (to Prajāpati)'. With the half verse (Rg. III 8. 4.) 'the young man, well attired and dressed, came⁶⁵⁶ hither' he (the teacher) should cause him to turn round to the right and with his two hands placed over (the boy's) shoulders he should touch the place of the boy's heart repeating the latter half (of Rg. III. 8. 4). Having wiped the ground round the fire the brahmacārī should put (on the fire) a fuel stick silently, since it is known (from śruti) 'what belongs to Prajāpati is silently (done)', and the brahmacārī belongs to Prajāpati. Some do this (offering of a fuel stick) with a mantra 'to Agni I have brought a fuel stick, to the great Jātavedas; by the fuel stick mayst thou increase, Oh Agni and may we (increase) through *brahman* (prayer or spiritual lore), svāhā'.⁶⁵⁷ Having put the fuel stick (on the fire) and having touched the fire, he (the student), thrice wipes off his face with the words 'I

653a. Here the boy should be addressed by his name. The formula 'devasya tvā' occurs in several connections (e. g. in adoption etc.) in several saṁhitās. Vide for this वाज. सं. II. 11, तै. सं. II. 6. 8. 6. A similar formula occurs in आप. मन्त्रपाठ II. 3. 24 and II. 9. 5, हिरण्य. गृ. I. 11. 17, मानवगृह्य. I. 22. 5, बौ. गृ. II. 5. 28 (देवस्य.....इस्ताभ्यामुपनयेऽसौ), काठकगृ. 41. 16 (reads as in बौ. गृ.)

654. देव मा सृत्. This मन्त्र occurs also in the आप. मन्त्रपाठ II. 3. 31 (अस्तावेष्ट ते देव सूर्य सृत्) and in मानवगृह्य I. 22. 5, शां. गृ. II. 18. 4 and others.

655. The words कस्य परिददामि occur in आप. म. पा. II. 3. 29, मानवगृह्य I. 22. 5, पारस्कर II. 2 (with variations in all)

656. For the whole verse सुवा सुवासा: vide note 620 above.

657. अग्रे समिधमाहारी &c—The first half occurs in आप. म. पा. II. 6. 2, पारस्कर II. 4, हिरण्य. गृ. I. 7. 2, गोमिलगृह्य II. 10. 46, भारद्वाजगृ. I. 8, all of which have a long latter half like यथा स्वमग्ने समिधा समिधसे एवं मामाहुषा ... मेघया यजया etc.

anoint myself with lustre'; it is known (from śruti) 'for he does anoint himself with lustre'. 'May Agni bestow on me, insight, offspring and lustre; on me may Indra bestow insight, offspring and vigour (indriya); on me may the sun bestow insight, offspring and radiance; what thy lustre is, Oh Agni, may I thereby become lustrous; what thy strength is, Agni, may I thereby become strong; what thy consuming power is Agni, may I thereby acquire consuming power'.⁶⁵⁸ Having waited upon (worshipped) Agni with these formulas, (the student) should bend his knees, embrace (the teacher's feet) and say to him 'recite, Sir, recite, Sir, the Sāvitrī'. Seizing the student's hands with the upper garment (of the student) and his own hands the teacher recites the Sāvitrī, first pāda by pāda, then hemistich by hemistich (and lastly) the whole verse. He (the teacher) should make him (the student) recite (the Sāvitrī) as much as he is able. On the place of the student's heart the teacher lays his hand with the fingers upturned with the formula 'I place thy heart'⁶⁵⁹ unto duty to me; may thy mind follow my mind; may you attend on my words single-minded; may Bṛhaspati appoint thee unto me'. Having tied the girdle round him (the boy) and having given him the staff, the teacher should instruct him in the observances of a brahmacārī with the words 'a brahmacārī'⁶⁶⁰ art thou, sip water, do service, do not sleep by day, depending (completely) on the teacher learn the Veda'. He (the student) should beg (food) in the evening and the morning; he should put a fuel stick (on fire) in the evening and the morning. That (which he has received by begging) he should announce to the teacher; he should not sit down (but should be standing) the rest of the day."⁶⁶¹

The whole procedure of upanayana is more elaborately described in the Āp. gr., in Hir. gr. and Gobhila. A few points

658. मयि मेधां &c. These mantras occur in तै. सं. III. 3. 1. 2 and III. 5. 3. 2; also in हिरण्य. गृ., बौ. गृ. II. 5. 62 &c.

659. मम व्रते &c. These words also occur in पारस्करयु. II. 2., मानवयु. I. 22. 10, हिरण्ययु. (where we have मम हृदये). These words also occur in the marriage ceremony (as addressed by the husband); vide पारस्करयु. I. 8.

660. ब्रह्मचार्यसि &c. These words (with some additions and omissions) occur in आप. न. पा. II. 6. 14, पारस्करयु. II. 3, काठकयु. 41. 17 and several others. These are based on the ज्ञतपथ passage quoted in note 625 above. In some it is said simply 'do not sleep' and this is explained in आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 4. 28. as 'अथ यः पूर्वोत्थायी जघन्यसंवेक्षी तमाहुर्न स्वपितिति'.

661. अनुपवचनीय sacrifice is to be performed after a part of the Veda has been learnt; vide आश्व. य. I. 22. 10-16, गोभिलयु. III. 2. 46-47.

of interest and divergence may be noted here briefly. It is remarkable that Āśv., Āp. and several other sūtrakāras do not say a word about the sacred thread, while a few like Hir. gr. (I. 2. 6), Bhār. gr. (I. 3) and Mānava gr. (I. 22. 2) say that the boy already wears the yajñopavīta before the homa begins; while Baud. gr.⁶⁶² (II. 5. 7) says that the boy is given the yajñopavīta and then made to recite the well-known mantra 'the Yajñopavīta is extremely sacred' and the Vaik. smārta (II. 5) says that the teacher gives the upper garment to the boy with⁶⁶³ the verse 'paridam vāsaḥ', the sacred thread with the mantra 'Yajñopavītam' and the black antelope skin with the mantra 'the eye of Mitra'. Sudarśana on Āp. gr. 10. 5 says that the boy puts on the yajñopavīta with the mantra before he takes his meal (according to some) or (according to others) before⁶⁶⁴ he puts the fuel stick on the fire and relies on Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 1 for support. According to Karka and Harihara (on Pāraskara) the yajñopavīta was given to the student by the teacher after the tying of the girdle. The Samskāratattva p. 934 says the same. Late works like the Samskāratnamālā (p. 202) prescribe the wearing of the sacred thread before the homa. The origin and development of the ideas about yajñopavīta will be dealt with separately later on. Āp. gr. (X. 5), Baud gr. (II. 5. 7) and Pār. gr. (II. 2) prescribe a dinner to brāhmanas before the ceremonies begin and receiving their benedictions. Āp. gr. (X. 5), Bhār. gr. (I. 1), Baud gr.⁶⁶⁵ (II. 5. 7) say that the boy also is made to take food; according to later works (e.g. Samskāratnamālā) the boy takes his meal in the same dish with his mother (for the last time) and other brahmacārins (eight in number) are also invited at the same time for meals in the

662. स्नातश्चाचिवाससं बद्धशिखं यज्ञोपवीतं प्रतिमुञ्चन् वाचयति 'यज्ञोपवीतं परमं पवित्रं प्रजापतेर्यत्सहजं पुरस्तात्। आयुष्यमग्न्यं प्रतिमुञ्चन् शुभ्रं यज्ञोपवीतं बलमस्तु तेजः॥' इति। यज्ञोपवीतिनमप आचमय्याथ देवयजनमुदानयति। बौ. गृ. II. 5. 7-8; the verse यज्ञोपवीतं is quoted as from गृह्यपरिशिष्ट in स्मृतिच० (I. p. 31) and is repeated even in the island of Bali by the *pedandas*. In some mss. of Pār. gr. this mantra occurs, but it is an interpolation, as Karka, Jayarāma, and Harihara say 'यद्याप सूत्रकारेण यज्ञोपवीतधारणं न सूत्रितम्' (हरिहर).

663. परीदं वासः—this is आप. म. पा. II. 2. 8; मित्रस्य चक्षुः is आप. म. पा. II. 2. 11.

664. Acc. to शाङ्खायनगृह्य II. 2. 3 the आचार्य says 'यज्ञोपवीतमसि यज्ञस्य त्वा यज्ञोपवीतेनोपनह्यामि.'

665. बौ. गृ. सू. 'कुमारं भोजयित्वा तस्य चालैवसूष्णीं केशानोप्य स्नातंश्चाचिवाससं बद्धशिखम्' &c. (II. 5. 7).

company of the boy. This practice is observed even in modern times. Almost all prescribe that the boy is shaved on this day (as in caula); this also is done in modern times. But in ancient⁶⁶⁶ times the shaving was done by the ācārya himself as stated by Sudarśana on Āp. gr. 10. 6-8. There are several other matters detailed in Āp. and others, on which Āśv. and some others are silent. The important ones are mentioned below.

(a) Āp. gr. (10. 9), Mānava gr. (I. 23. 12), Baud. gr. (II. 5. 10), Khādīra gr. (II. 4) and Bhār. gr. (I. 8) make the boy tread on a stone to the north of the fire with his right foot after homa. The mantras repeated in the several sūtras are significant asking the boy to be firm like a stone.⁶⁶⁷

(b) Mānava gr. (I. 22. 3) and Kāthaka gr. (41. 10) prescribe after homa the tasting of curds thrice after repeating the verse 'Dadhikrāvṇo akāriṣam' (Rg. IV. 39. 6= Tai. S. I. 5. 4. 11).

(c) Pār. gr. (II. 2), Bhār. gr. (I. 7), Āp. gr. (11. 1-4), Āp. Mantrapāṭha (II. 3. 27-30), Baud. gr. II. 5. 25 (quoting Sātyāyanaka), Mānava gr. I. 22. 4-5, and Khādīra gr. II. 4. 12 refer to the fact that the teacher asks the boy his name and the latter pronounces his name. The teacher also asks whose brahmacārī the boy is.

A person was given (as shown above at pp. 246-247) an abhivādaniya name either derived from the nakṣatra of birth or from a deity name or the gotra name. This was necessary for several purposes. The teacher had to know that the boy came from a good family, he had also to address him by name (as there might be several pupils). It is wrong to suppose⁶⁶⁸ from the story of Satyakāma Jābāla (where the

666. त्रींशच्चिन्तुर्दुर्मान्तर्धा योत्तरामिश्च तसुभिः चतसुभिः प्रतिमन्त्रं प्रतिविशं प्रवपति । वपन्तसुत्तरया सुमन्त्रयते दक्षिणतो माता ब्रह्मचारी वा । आनुहुहे शकुत्पिण्डे यवाग्निधाय तस्मिन्नेशानुपयम्योत्तरयोद्गुम्भरमूले दुर्धस्तम्बे वा निदधाति । आप. गृ. X. 6-8. सुदर्शन on sūtra says 'प्रशब्दकरणात्कुशलीकरणमप्याचार्यस्यैव' and on sūtra 8 'केचित्—आचार्यः पूर्वं वपनमारभते ततो नापितः संसृष्टाभिरैवाङ्गिरवर्यं कुर्वन् केशान् प्रवपति । तं च वपन्तसुत्तरया आचार्योऽसुमन्त्रयते । दक्षिणतो मातित्युक्तार्थमेव । तस्मै । एवद्वपनं नापितः समापयतीत्यत्र वचनाभावात् तत्कल्पनायां चानुपपत्त्यभावात् ।' हरदत्त on आप. गृ. X. 6 says 'पूर्वं मन्त्रवद्वपनं करोत्याचार्यः पश्चात् नापित इत्युक्तं भवति,' which is combated by सुदर्शन.

667. आतिष्ठेममश्मानमश्मेव त्वं स्थिरो भव । अमि तिष्ठ पृतन्यतः सहस्व पृतनायतः । आप. म. पा. II. 2. 2, which is the मन्त्र in आप. गृ., भार० गृ., बौ. गृ.

668. Vide Keay in 'Ancient Indian Education' p. 23 where he says 'it was still the rule for brāhmanas to be received as students.' Dr. Ghurye in 'Caste and race in India' p. 43 merely repeats this dictum.

teacher asked him his gotra) that only brāhmaṇas were admitted to brahmacarya. All smṛtis, even the latest, contemplated that the three castes had the right to learn the Veda. It is one thing to have a right and another to exercise it. Probably very few kṣatriyas cared to submit their sons to the rigorous discipline of brahmacarya as laid down in the smṛtis and cared much less for Veda studies. In the Mahābhārata and in the Kādambarī it is said that the princes were taught in a special house constructed for the purpose and teachers were paid handsomely and brought there to teach instead of the princes going to the teachers.

It is not possible for want of space to show how the greatest possible confusion prevails as to the order of the various components of the ceremony of upanayana. But a few striking examples may be given. Āśvalāyana gr. treats of the tying of the girdle and the giving of the staff almost at the end of the ceremony, while Āp. gr. puts this after homa and immediately before añjalipūraṇa (filling the folded hands of both with water); Āśvalāyana puts ādityadarśana after the boy's hand is held by the teacher and before paridāna (handing the boy over to the deities), but Bhār. (I. 9) puts it after the instruction in the observances of brahmacarya. The Bhār. gr. (I. 9) treats of ādityadarśana almost at the end of the rites, while Āśv. places it among the earlier ones after homa. Besides the same mantras are employed by different sūtras for different purposes; for example, the mantra 'suśravaḥ &c.' is employed by Āp. at the time of taking the staff by the boy (XI. 14 and Mantrapāṭha II. 5. 1), while Āśv. gr. (I. 22. 19), Bhār. gr. (I. 10), Mānava gr. (I. 23. 17) employ it in 'medhājanana' (on the 4th day after upanayana) and Pār. gr. (II. 4) employs it at the time of putting a fuel stick on fire. Āśv. employs the verse 'yuvā suvāsāḥ' (Rg. III. 8. 4) for making the boy turn round (first half) and for touching the region of the boy's heart (latter half), while the same verse is employed at the time of tying the girdle round the boy's waist by the Mānava gr. (I. 22. 8) and Pār. gr. (II. 2).

Later writers went on adding mantras and details. On the day prior to upanayana the Nāndīśrāddha was performed as said by Haradatta on Āp. gr. 10. 5. *Grahamakha* (a sacrifice to the planets) also may be performed the previous day or on any day within 7 or 10 days of the upanayana. Then before the actual upanayana, there is the worship of Gaṇapati and of

Kuladevatās, puṇyāhavācana, the worship of Mātṛs and the consecration of the maṇḍapa-devatās. For the detailed modern procedure (prayoga) of upanayana, the S. R. M. (pp. 197-210), which in the main follows the briefer procedure in the gṛhya sūtras, may be consulted. Up to the act of making the boy dine with his mother it is the father who does everything ; thereafter it is the ācārya who does the rest. The saṁkalpa of upanayana is given below ⁶⁶⁹.

Yajñopavīta ⁶⁷⁰ :—A few words must be said on the history of *yajñopavīta* from ancient times. Among the earliest references is one from the Tai. S. II. 5. 11. 1 ' the nivīta ⁶⁷¹ is (used in actions) for men, the prācīnāvīta (is used in rites) for pitṛs, the upavīta (in rites) for gods ; he wears it in the upavīta mode (i.e. slung from the left shoulder), thereby he makes a distinguishing sign of the gods'. In the Tai. Br. (I. 6. 8.) we read 'wearing in the prācīnāvīta form he offers towards the south ; for in the case of pitṛs, acts are performed towards the south. Disregarding that one should wear in the upavīta form and offer in the north only, since both gods and pitṛs are worshipped (in this rite)' ⁶⁷². The three words nivīta, prācīnāvīta and upavīta are explained in the Gobhila gr. (I. 2. 2-4) which says ' raising his right arm, putting the head into (the upavīta) he suspends (the cord) over his left shoulder in such a way that it hangs down on his right side ; thus he becomes yajñopavītīn. Passing his left arm, putting the head (into the upavīta) he suspends it over his right shoulder, so that it hangs down along his left side ; in this way he becomes prācīnāvītīn ; a person becomes prācīnāvītīn only in the sacrifice offered to the Manes' ⁶⁷³. To the same effect is

669. आचम्य प्राणानायम्य देशकालौ संकीर्त्यास्य कुमारस्य द्विजत्वसिद्धिपूर्वकवेदाध्ययनाधिकारसिद्धिद्वारा श्रीपरमेश्वरप्रतिपत्त्यर्थमाचार्यत्वेतुकसवित्रीमातुकमुपनयनाख्यं संस्कारं करिष्ये इति सङ्कल्पं कुर्यात् ।

670. Vide ' Orion ' by the late Mr. Tilak pp. 145-148 for discussion on this.

671. निवीतं मनुष्याणां प्राचीनावीतं पितृणामुपवीतं देवानाम् । उपव्ययते देवलक्ष्ममेव सङ्कुरुते । तै. सं. II. 5. 11. 1.

672. दक्षिणतः प्राचीनावीती निर्वपति । दक्षिणावृद्धिं पितृणाम् । अनादृत्य तत् । उत्तरत एवोपवीती निर्वपेत् । उभये हि देवाश्च पितरश्चेज्यन्ते । अथो यदेव दक्षिणार्धेधिभ्रयति तेन दक्षिणावृत् । तै. ब्रा. I. 6. 8.

673. दक्षिणं बाहुमुद्धृत्य शिरोऽवधाय सव्येति प्रतिष्ठापयति दक्षिणं कक्षमन्ववल्ग्वं भवत्येवं यज्ञोपवीती भवति । सव्यं बाहुमुद्धृत्य शिरोऽवधाय दक्षिणेति प्रतिष्ठापयति सव्यं कक्षमन्ववल्ग्वं भवत्येवं प्राचीनावीती भवति । पितृयज्ञे त्वेव प्राचीनावीती भवति । गोमिल सूत्र I. 2. 2-4.

Khādīra gr. I. 1. 8-9, Manu II. 63, Baud. gr. paribhāṣā-sūtra II. 2. 7 and 10, Vaik. I. 5. The Baud.⁶⁷⁴ gr. paribhāṣā-sūtra II. 2. 3 says 'when it is carried over the neck, both shoulders and the chest and is held with both the thumbs (of the two hands) lower than the region of the heart and above the navel, that is *nivita*; (when the śruti says it is) for men, what it means is that it is for sages. The occasions when *nivita* mode is used are: *ṛṣi-tarpana*, sexual intercourse, *samskāras* of one's children except when *homa* is to be performed, answering the calls of nature, carrying a corpse and whatever other actions are meant only for men; *nivita* is what hangs from the neck'.

The Śat. Br. (II. 4. 2. 1, S. B. E. vol. 12, p. 361) says "the gods being *yajñopavitins* approached near, bending their right knee; he (Prajāpati) said to them 'the sacrifice is your food, immortality is your strength, the sun is your light'; then the *pitṛs* approached him, being *prācināvitins* and bending their left knee and then men approached him covered with a garment and bending their bodies" etc.⁶⁷⁵ It is important to note here that men are said to have been covered only with a garment and there is no reference in their case to any mode of wearing either as *yajñopavita* or *nivita* or *prācināvita*. This rather suggests that men wore only garments when approaching gods and not necessarily a cord of threads. In the Tai.⁶⁷⁶ Br. III. 10. 9. it is said that when *vāk* (speech) appeared to Devabhāga Gautama he put on the *yajñopavita* and fell down with the words 'namo namaḥ'.

It seems to follow from a passage in the Tai. Ā. (II. 1) that a strip of black antelope skin or of cloth was used in ancient times as *upavita*⁶⁷⁷ 'the sacrifice of him who wears the

674. उपरिष्ठादंताभ्यां ग्रीवां हृदयं च संपरिगृह्य हृदयस्याधस्तादूर्ध्वं नाभेरङ्गुष्ठभ्यां परियुह्यति तस्मिन्निवृत्तं मनुष्याणामिति ऋषीणामित्येवेदमुक्तं भवति । अथ निवृत्तकार्याणि ऋषीणां तर्पणं व्यवयः प्रजासंस्कारोऽन्यत्र होमात्, सूत्रपुरीषोत्सर्गः प्रेतोद्बह्नं यानि चान्यानि मनुष्यकार्याणि कण्ठोऽवसक्तं निवृत्तमिति । बी. शु. परिभाषासूत्र II. 2. 3 and 6.

675. ततो देवा यज्ञोपवीतिनो भूत्वा दक्षिणं जान्वाच्योपासीदंस्तानब्रवीद्यज्ञो वोऽन्न-मसृतत्वं व ऊर्ग्वः सूर्यो वो ज्योतिरिति । अथैनं पितरः प्राचीनावीतिनः सव्यं जान्वाच्य ... अथैनं मनुष्याः प्रावृता उपर्यं कृत्वोपासीदन् । शतपथ II. 4. 2. 1.

676. एतावति ह गौतमः यज्ञोपवीतं कृत्वा अधो निपपात नमो नम इति । तै. ब्रा. III. 10. 9. सायण remarks 'स्वकीयेन वस्त्रेण यज्ञोपवीतं कृत्वा'.

677. प्रसृतो ह वै यज्ञोपवीतिनो यज्ञोऽप्रसृतोऽयज्ञोपवीतिनो यत्किं च ब्राह्मणो यज्ञोपवीत्य-धीते यजत एव तत् । तस्माद्यज्ञोपवीत्येवाधीयीत याजयेद्यजेत वा यज्ञस्य प्रसृत्यै । अजिनं वासो वा दक्षिणत उपवीथ दक्षिणं बाहुसुद्धरतेऽवधत्ते सव्यमिति यज्ञोपवीतमेतदेव विपरीतं प्राचीनावीतं संवीतं माहुर्यम् । तै. आ. II. 1. This passage is quoted as from the Kāthaka in the वनवातिक on जैमिनि I. 3. 7 (p. 201).

yajñopavīta becomes spread out (prosperous, famous), while the sacrifice of him who does not wear it does not spread; whatever a brāhmaṇa studies, wearing a yajñopavīta, he really (therein) performs a sacrifice. Therefore one should study, sacrifice or officiate at a sacrifice with the yajñopavīta on for securing the spreading of sacrifice; having worn an antelope skin or a garment on the right side, he raises the right hand and keeps the left down; this is yajñopavīta; when this position is reversed it is prācināvīta; the position called samvīta is for men.' It is remarkable that here at any rate no cord of threads is meant by upavīta, but only a piece of skin or cloth. The Par. M. (I. part 1 p. 173) quotes⁶⁷⁸ a portion of the above passage and remarks that the Tai. Ār. lays down that a man becomes an upavītin by wearing one of the two, viz. antelope skin and (cotton) garment.

In the Pūrvamīmāṃsāsūtra (III. 1. 21) it is established (with reference to the words) in the Tai. S. II. 5. 11. 1 (upavyayate etc. quoted in *f. n.* 671) that one has to be an upavītin throughout all the actions, prescribed in the sections on the Darśa-Pūrṇamāsa sacrifice and not only when the Sāmidhenī verses are recited. The first part of the same passage is discussed by Jaimini (III. 4. 1-9) and it is established that the passage enjoins the wearing of upavīta in Darśa-Pūrṇamāsa which is devakarma and that the reference to prācināvīta and nivīta is only an *anuvāda* intended to emphasize the desirability of the wearing of upavīta in sacrifices to gods. The Tantravārtika⁶⁷⁹ explains that *nivīta* is tying the upavīta round the throat like a braid of hair (according to some), while according to others it is tying it round the waist as if for girding up the loins and that the first is not done except in battle, while the latter has to be resorted to in all acts in order to devote sole attention to them. So according to the Tantravārtika, the Tai. S. is not referring (in II. 5. 11. 1) to a cord of threads but to a piece of cloth. Some of the sūtrakāras and commentators drop hints that garments were used or could be used as upavīta. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 2. 4. 22-23) says that a householder should always wear an upper garment and then adds 'or the sacred thread may serve the purpose of an upper garment.' This shows that originally

678. तत्रेति कर्तव्यत्वात् रूपेण कृष्णगजिनवाससोरन्यतरेणोपवीतित्वं वैत्तिरीयके विधीयते । परा. मा. I. 1. p. 173.

679. निवीतं केचिद्गलवेणिकावन्धं स्मरन्ति । केचित्तु नः परिकरबन्धम् । तत्र गलवेणिकावन्धो युष्मादन्यत्र न प्राप्नोति । परिकरबन्धस्तु सर्वकर्मस्वव्यग्रताकरत्वात्प्राप्तः । तन्त्रवार्तिके on जैमिनि III. 4. 2 (p. 891).

upavīta meant an upper garment and not merely a cord of threads. In another place the same sūtra says (II. 8. 19. 12) 'one (who partakes of śrāddha dinner) should eat covered with an upper garment slung over the left shoulder and passing under the right arm'. Haradatta gives two explanations of this, viz. that one should wear an upper garment (while dining at a śrāddha) like a yajñopavīta i. e. under the right arm and over the left shoulder, that is, a brāhmaṇa cannot rely on Āp. Dh. S. II. 2. 4. 23 and wear at śrāddha repast only the sacred thread (but he must wear the garment in that fashion) and give up the sacred thread for the time.⁶⁸⁰ While another view is that he must wear the sacred thread and the upper garment both in the fashion of upavīta. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 2. 6. 18-19) prescribes that when a student wears two garments he should wear one of them (i. e. the upper one) in the yajñopavīta mode, but when he wears only one garment then he should wear it round the lower part of the body (and should not cover the upper body with a portion of the garment though it may be long enough for that). Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 1 prescribes that a man must be yajñopavītin at the time of waiting upon teachers, elders, guests, at the time of homa, in japa (murmuring prayer), at meals and in taking ācamana and at the time of daily vedic study. On this Haradatta says 'yajñopavīta means a particular mode of wearing the (upper) garment; if one has no upper garment, then there is another (but inferior) mode stated in Āp. Dh. S. II. 2. 4. 23 and that at other times it is not necessary to have the yajñopavīta'.

The Gobhila gr. (I. 2. 1) in treating of upanayana⁶⁸¹ says 'the student takes as yajñopavīta a cord of threads, a garment

680. नित्यमुत्तरं वासः कार्यम्। अपि वा सूत्रमेवोपवीतार्थे। आप. ध. सू. II. 2. 4. 22-23; सूत्रराच्छादनश्चैव यज्ञोपवीती भुञ्जीत। आप. ध. सू. II. 8. 19. 12; हरदत्त explains "उत्तराच्छादनमुपस्वासः। तेन यज्ञोपवीतेन यज्ञोपवीतं कृत्वा भुञ्जीत। नास्य भोजने 'अपि वा सूत्रमेवोपवीतार्थे' इत्ययं कल्पो भवतीत्येके। ससूत्रय इत्यन्ये।"; यज्ञोपवीती द्विवस्त्रः। अधोनिवीतस्त्वेकवस्त्रः। आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 6. 18-19; उपासने गुरुणां वृद्धानामतिथीनां होमे जप्यकर्मणि भोजन आचमने स्वाध्याये च यज्ञोपवीती स्यात्। आप. ध. सू. I. 5. 15. 1, where हरदत्त says 'वासोविन्यासविज्ञेयो यज्ञोपवीतम्। दक्षिणं बाहुमुद्धृत इति ब्राह्मणविहितम्। वाससोऽसंभवेऽयुक्कल्पं वक्ष्यति अपि वा सूत्रमेवोपवीतार्थे इति। एषु विधानात् कालान्तरे नावश्यंभावः।'; vide औशनसस्मृति (Jivānanda, part I. p. 502) 'अग्न्यगारे गवां गोष्ठे होमे जप्ये तथैव च। स्वाध्याये भोजने नित्यं ब्राह्मणानां च संनिधौ। उपासने गुरुणां च संध्ययोरुभयोरपि। उपवीती भवेन्नित्यं विधिरेष सनातनः॥'

681. यज्ञोपवीतं कुरुते वस्त्रं वापि वा कुशरज्जुमेव। गोभिलगृह्य I. 2. 1; सूत्रमपि वस्त्राभावाद्देदित्वन्यमिति। अपि वाससा यज्ञोपवीतार्थान् कुर्यात्तद्भावे त्रिवृता सूत्रेणेति ऋष्य-शृङ्गस्मरणम्। स्मृतिच० I. p. 32.

or a rope of kuśa grass'. This indicates that though a cord of threads was considered in Gobhila's days as the appropriate yajñopavīta, that was not an invariable rule in his day and that a garment could be employed instead. The commentator being brought up in the latter day tradition explains by saying that if the sūtra was lost in a forest then a garment may be worn like the sacred thread and if even that was lost a rope of kuśa. But this appears to be rather far-fetched as an explanation of Gobhila's unqualified words. Manu (II. 44) says that 'the upavīta of a brāhmaṇa should be made of cotton, its strands should be twined with the right hand moved over them (or the twist of the strands must be upwards) and it should have three threads'. Medhātithi comments on this that 'upavīta' means a particular mode of wearing a garment or a particular position of it and therefore here by upavīta is meant that which can be worn in that mode. The Sm. C. quotes a prose passage from R̥ṣyaśṛṅga 'or one may carry out all the purposes for which yajñopavīta is required by means of a garment and in its absence by a string of three threads'. From the above passages, from the fact that many of the gṛhyasūtras are entirely silent about the giving or wearing of the sacred thread in upanayana and from the fact that no mantra⁶⁸² is cited from the Vedic Literature for the act of giving the yajñopavīta (which is now the centre of the upanayana rites), while scores of vedic mantras are cited for the several component parts of the ceremony of upanayana, it is most probable, if not certain, that the sacred thread was not invariably used in the older times as in the times of the later smṛtis and in modern times, that originally the upper garment was used in various positions for certain acts, that it could be laid aside altogether in the most ancient times and that the cord of threads came to be used first as an option and later on exclusively for the upper garment.

A few rules about yajñopavīta may now be stated here.⁶⁸³ The yajñopavīta is to have three threads of nine strands well

682. The mantra 'यज्ञोपवीतं परमं &c. is cited only in Baud. gr. (note 662 above) and in Vaik. (II. 5), has certainly a comparatively modern ring about it and is not cited in any well-known ancient work.

683. Vide स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 4 and सं. प्र. pp. 416-418 as to how the upavīta is to be manufactured and who is to manufacture it, one interesting fact being that an upavīta prepared by a maiden was to be preferred to one prepared by a widow. मदनरत्न quoted in the आचाररत्न defines ऊर्ध्ववृत्त in Manu II. 44 as 'करेण दक्षिणेनोर्ध्वयतेन त्रिगुणीकृतम् । वलितं मानवे शास्त्रे सूत्रमूर्ध्ववृत्तं स्मृतम् ॥' (p. 2).

twisted (for each thread). Vide Baud. Dh. S. I. 5.5., Devala quoted in the Sm. C. ⁶⁸⁴. The nine devatās of the nine *tantus* (strands) are given by Devala viz. Ōmkāra, Agni, Nāga, Soma, Pitr̥s, Prajāpati, Vāyu, Sūrya, ⁶⁸⁵ all gods. Medhātithi on Manu II.44 says that in iṣṭis, animal sacrifices and soma sacrifices, the yajñopavīta was to have only one thread of three *tantus*, but it was three-fold in three classes of *ahina*, *ekāha*, and *sattra* sacrifices as they required three fires and in the seven *somasamsthās* seven-fold and five-fold when viewed with reference to the three savanas and two *saṁdhyā*s. The yajñopavīta should reach as far as the navel, should not reach beyond the navel, nor should it be above the chest. ⁶⁸⁶ Manu II. 44 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 27. 19 prescribe that the yajñopavīta for brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya and vaiśya should respectively be of cotton, hemp and sheep wool. Baud. Dh. S. (I. 5. 5), Gobhila gr. (I. 2. 1) say that it may be of cotton thread or of kuśa grass and Devala as quoted in Sm. C. says that all twice-born persons should make their yajñopavīta of cotton, of kṣumā, hair of cow's tail, hemp, tree bark or kuśa according to the availability of the material. ⁶⁸⁷ The remarks of the Saṁskāramayūkha after quoting Manu II. 44 are interesting 'we do not know the origin of (or authority for) the practice of present-day kṣatriyas and vaiśyas, viz. of wearing cotton yajñopavīta'. This shows that in the 17th century A. D. many kṣatriyas and vaiśyas put on yajñopavīta. ⁶⁸⁸ Kumārila also says that wearing yajñopavīta and studying Vedas is common to all the three varṇas.

The number of yajñopavītas to be worn differed according to circumstances. A brahmacārī was to wear only one yajñopavīta and saṁnyāsins, when they kept yajñopavīta at all, also wore

684. कौशं सूत्रं वा त्रिखिद्यद्यज्ञोपवीतम् । आ नाभेः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 5.5-6; उक्तं देवलेन यज्ञोपवीतं कुर्वीत सूत्रेण नवतन्तुकम् । इति । स्मृतिच. I. p. 31.

685. अत्र प्रतिनस्तु देवताभेदमाह देवलः । ओंकारः प्रथमस्तन्तुर्हितीयोऽग्निस्तथैव च । तृतीयो नागदैवत्यश्चतुर्थो सोमदैवतः । पञ्चमः पितृदैवत्यः षष्ठश्चैव प्रजापतिः । सप्तमो वायुदैवत्यः सूर्यश्चाष्टम एव च ॥ नवमः सर्वदैवत्य इत्येते नव तन्तवः । स्मृतिच० I. p. 31

686. कात्यायनस्तु परिमाणान्तरमाह । पृष्ठवंशे च नाभ्यां च धृतं यद्विन्दते कटिम् । तद्वार्यमुपवीतं स्यान्नातिलम्बं न चोच्छ्रितम् । देवलः । स्तनादूर्ध्वमधो नाभेर्न कर्तव्यं कथंचन । स्मृतिच० I. p. 31

687. कार्पासक्षौमगोवालशणवल्कतुणोद्भवम् । 'सदा संभवतः कार्यमुपवीतं द्विजातिभिः ॥ स्मृतिच० I. p. 32 ; परा. मा. I. 2. p. 36 ; वृद्धहारीत (VIII. 47-48) has a similar verse.

688. एवं च यदिदानीतज्ञानां क्षत्रियवैश्यानां कार्पासोपवीतधारणं तत्र मूलं न विद्मः । संस्कारमयूख.

only one. A snātaka⁶⁸⁹ (i. e. one who has returned from the teacher's house after brahmacarya) and a house-holder were to wear two while one who desired long life may wear more than two. Vas. Dh. S. XII. 14 says 'snātakas should always wear a lower garment and an upper one, two yajñopavītas, should have a stick and a pot filled with water'. Kāśyapa allowed a householder to wear any number up to ten. Whether yajñopavīta as worn in modern times was worn from the most ancient times or not, it is certain that long before the Christian era it had come to be so worn and it had become an inflexible rule that a brāhmaṇa must always wear a yajñopavīta and have his top-knot (of hair) always tied up; if he did any act without observing this rule, it was inefficacious.⁶⁹⁰ Vas.⁶⁹¹ and Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 1) both say that a man must always wear yajñopavīta. If a brāhmaṇa took his meals without wearing yajñopavīta, he had to undergo prāyaścitta viz. to bathe, to mutter prayers and fast; vide Laghu-Hārīta verse 23 quoted by Aparārka pp. 1171, 1173. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 292 prescribes prāyaścitta for answering calls of nature without having the yajñopavīta placed on the right ear (as Yāj. I. 16 prescribes). Manu IV. 66 forbids the wearing of another's yajñopavīta along with several other things (such as shoes, ornament, garland and kamaṇḍalu). In Yāj. (I. 16 and 133) and other smṛtis the yajñopavīta is called brahmasūtra.

An interesting question is whether women ever had upanayana performed or whether they had to wear the yajñopavīta. Several smṛtis contain instructive dicta on this point.⁶⁹² The

689. स्नातकानां तु नित्यं स्यादन्तर्वासस्तथोत्तरम् । यज्ञोपवीते द्वे यष्टिः सोदकश्च कमण्डलुः ॥ वसिष्ठ XII. 14; विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 71. 13-15 has similar rules; the verse of Vasiṣṭha is quoted by the Mit. on Yāj. I. 133; compare मनु. IV. 36; एकैकमुपवीतं तु यतीनां ब्रह्मचारिणाम् । गृहिणां च वनस्थानाश्रमपवीतद्वयं स्मृतम् । सोत्तरीयं त्रयं वापि विभृयाच्छुभ्रतन्तु वा । वृद्धहारीत VIII. 44-45. Vide देवल quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 32 and ज्रीणि चत्वारि पञ्चाष्ट गृहिणः सुवर्द्धाणि वा । सर्वेषां क्षुचिभिर्धार्य-मुपवीतं द्विजातिभिः ॥ कश्यप quoted in the संस्कारमयूख.

690. Vide note 609 above.

691. नित्योदकी नित्ययज्ञोपवीती नित्यस्वाध्यायी पतिताक्षवर्जौ । व्रतौ च गच्छन् विधिवच्च जुह्वन् ब्राह्मणश्च्यवते ब्रह्मलोकात् ॥ वसिष्ठ 8. 9, बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 1, उद्योगपर्व 40. 25; the first pāda is quoted in the सन्त्रवार्तिक p. 896.

692. 'यस्य हारीतेनोक्तं द्विविधाः स्त्रियो ब्रह्मवादिभ्यः सद्योवध्वश्च । तत्र ब्रह्मवादिनीनाश्रमपनयनमग्निधनं वेदाध्ययनं स्वगृहे च भिक्षाचर्येति । सद्योवध्वनां तु उपस्थिते विवाहे कथंचिदुपनयनमात्रं कृत्वा विवाहः कार्यः ॥' quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 24; संस्कार-प्रकाश p. 402.

Hārītadharmaśūtra as quoted in the Sm. C. and other digests says 'there are two sorts of women, those that are brahmavādinīs (i. e. students of sacred lore) and those that are sadyovadhūs (i. e. who straightway marry). Out of these brahmavādinīs have to go through upanayana, keeping fire, vedic study and begging in one's house (i. e. under the parental roof); but in the case of sadyovadhūs when their marriage is drawing near, the mere ceremony of upanayana should somehow be performed and then their marriage should be celebrated.' In the Gobhila gr. ⁶⁹³ II. 1. 19 it is said "leading forward towards the sacred fire (from the house) the bride who is wrapped in a robe and wears the sacred thread (slung from her left shoulder, in the yajñopavita mode) he (the husband) should murmur the verse 'Soma gave her to Gandharva' (Rg. X. 85. 41)". It is clear that the girl, according to Gobhila, wore the yajñopavita as a symbol of the rite of upanayana. The commentator to whom this procedure naturally seemed strange explains 'yajñopavitinīm' as meaning 'whose upper garment is worn in the fashion of the sacred thread'. In the Saṁskāratattva of Raghunandana it is stated that Harīśarmā held that according to Gobhila the bride was to wear a yajñopavita, though Raghunandana himself does not approve of this explanation. In the ceremony of Samāvartana, Āśv. gr. III. 8, ⁶⁹⁴ on the subject of applying ointment says 'after having smeared the two hands with ointment a brāhmaṇa should salve his face first, a kṣatriya his two arms, a vaiśya his belly, a woman her private parts and persons who gain their livelihood by running, their thighs'. It is improper to say, as some do, that as to women this is a general rule interpolated in the treatment of samāvartana and has nothing to do with the latter. We should rather hold that Āśv. knew of women undertaking Vedic study and so prescribed what they should do in their samāvartana. In the Mahābhārata (Vanaparva 305. 20) ⁶⁹⁵ a brāhmaṇa is said to have taught to the

693. प्रावृतां यज्ञोपवीतिनीमभ्युदानयन् जपेत् सोमो ददद्बन्धवायेति ।' गोभिलगृह्य II. 1. 19; the com. says 'यज्ञोपवीतवत्कृतोत्तरीयम्'; 'न तु यज्ञोपवीतिनीमित्यनेन स्त्रीणामपि कर्माङ्गत्वेन यज्ञोपवीतधारणमिति हरिश्मोक्तं युक्तं स्त्रीणां यज्ञोपवीतधारणाद्युपपत्तेः ।' संस्कारतत्त्व p. 896.

694. अश्लेषनेन पाणी प्रलिप्य सुखमये ब्राह्मणोऽश्लिष्येत् । बाह्व राजन्यः । उदरं वैश्यः । उपस्थं स्त्री । ऊरु सरणजीविनः । आश्व. गृ. III. 8. 11.

695. तवस्तामनवद्याङ्गीं मादयामास स द्विजः । मन्त्रमामं तदा राजसूयवर्षिरासि श्रुतम् ॥ वनपर्व 305. 20.

mother of the Pāṇḍava heroes a number of mantras from the Atharvaśiras. Hārīta⁶⁹⁶ prescribes that in the case of women samāvartana took place before the appearance of menses. Therefore brahmavādinī women had upanayana performed in the 8th year from conception, then they studied Vedic lore and finished student-hood at the age of puberty. Yama⁶⁹⁷ says 'in former ages, tying of the girdle of muñja (i. e. upanayana) was desired in the case of maidens, they were taught the vedas and made to recite the Sāvitrī (the sacred Gāyatrī verse); either their father, uncle or brother taught them and not a stranger and begging was prescribed for a maiden in the house itself and she was not to wear deer-skin or bark garment and was not to have matted hair'. Manu seems to have been aware of this usage as prevalent in ancient times, if not his own. Having spoken of the saṁskāras from jātakarma to upanayana, Manu winds up (II. 66) 'these ceremonies were to be performed in their entirety for women also, but without mantras' and adds (II. 67) 'the ceremony of marriage is the only saṁskāra performed with Vedic mantras in the case of women; (in their case) attendance on the husband amounts to serving a guru (which a student had to do) and performance of domestic duties to worship of fire' (which the student had to perform by offering a fuel-stick in the evening every day). This shows that in the day of the Manusmṛti, upanayana for women had gone out of practice, though there were faint glimmerings of its performance for women in former days. Relying on the words 'in former ages' occurring in the verses of Yama quoted above medieval digests like the Sm. C., the Nirṇayasindhu and others say that this practice belonged to another yuga. In Bāṇa-bhaṭṭa's Kādambarī,⁶⁹⁸ Mahāśvetā (who was practising *tapas*) is described as 'one whose body was rendered pure by (wearing) a brahmasūtra (i. e. yajñopavīta)'. The yajñopavīta came to have superhuman virtues attributed to it and so probably even women who were practising austerities wore it. The Sam. Pr.

696. प्रायजसः समावर्तनम् । इति हारीतोकृत्या-संस्कारप्रकाश p. 404.

697. यमोपि । पुराकल्पे कुमारिणां मौञ्जीवन्धनमिष्यते । अध्यापनं च वेदानां सावित्री-वाचनं तथा ॥ पिता पितृभ्यो भ्राता वा नैनामध्यापयेत्परः । स्वगृहे चैव कन्याया भैक्षचर्या विधीयते ॥ वर्जयेद्भोजनं चौरं जडाधारणमेव च ॥ संस्कारप्रकाश pp. 402-403; these verses are ascribed to Manu in the स्मृतिचन्द्रिका (I. p. 24) edited by Mr. Gharpure, but this seems to be a misreading for यम (which is the reading of the Mysore ed.)

698. ब्रह्मसूत्रेण पवित्रीकृतकायाम् in para 133 of कादम्बरी (पूर्वार्ध).

(p. 419) quotes a verse saying that the Supreme Being is called *yajña* and *yajñopavīta* is so called because it belongs to the Supreme Being (or is used in sacrifices for Him).⁶⁹⁹

Though *kṣatriyas* and *vaiśyas* also were entitled to have the *upanayana* performed, it appears that they often neglected it or at least neglected the constant wearing of *yajñopavīta*, so much so that from comparatively early times the *yajñopavīta* came to be regarded as the peculiar indicator of the wearer's being of the *brāhmaṇa* caste. For example, *Kālidāsa* in *Raghuvamśa* (XI. 64)⁷⁰⁰ while describing the irate *brāhmaṇa* hero *Paraśurāma* says 'wearing the *upavīta*, which was the heritage that came to him from his father, and holding a formidable bow that came to him from the side of his mother (who was a *kṣatriya* princess)'. If the *upavīta* had been as constantly worn by the *kṣatriyas* as by *brāhmaṇas* in *Kālidāsa*'s day he would not have spoken of it as the peculiar sign of a *brāhmaṇa*. In the drama *Veṇīśamhāra* (Act III) when *Karṇa* resented the attitude of *Aśvatthāman*, who raised his left foot for kicking *Karṇa*, and said that he could not cut off his leg as by virtue of his caste (as *brāhmaṇa*) he could not be punished in that way, *Aśvatthāman* replied by throwing away his sacred thread with the words 'here do I give up my caste'.⁷⁰¹ That shows that in the days of the *Veṇīśamhāra* (not later than about 600 A. D.) the *yajñopavīta* had become the peculiar indicator of the caste of *brāhmaṇas* only.

The *Baudhāyana-sūtra* quoted in the *Saṃskāra-ratnamālā* (p. 188) says that yarn spun by a *brāhmaṇa* or his maiden daughter is to be brought, then one is to measure first 96 *āṅgulas* of it with the syllable *bhūh*, then another 96 with *bhuvah* and a third 96 with *svah*, then the yarn so measured is to be kept on a leaf of *palāśa* and is to be sprinkled with water to the accompaniment of the three mantras ' *āpo hi ṣṭhā* ' (*Rg. X. 9. 1-3*), with the four verses ' *Hiranyavarṇaḥ* ' (*Tai. S. V. 6. 1* and *Atharva I. 33. 1-4*) and with the *anuvāka* beginning with ' *pavamānaḥ suvarjaṇaḥ* ' (*Tai. Br. I. 4. 8*) and with the *Gāyatrī*, then the yarn is to be taken in the left hand and there is to be a clapping of the two hands thrice, the yarn is to be twisted

699. यज्ञार्थः परमात्मा य उच्यते चैव होतुभिः । उपवीतं ततोऽश्वेदं तत्स्याद्यज्ञोपवीत-
कम् ॥ सं. प्र. p. 419.

700. पित्र्यमंशुपवीतलक्षणं मातृकं च धनुर्जितं दधत् । रघुवंश XI. 64.

701. जाल्या चेदवश्योऽहमियं सा जातिः परित्यक्ता । वेणीसंहार III.

with the three verses 'bhūragnim ca' (Tai. Br. III. 10. 2) and then the knot is to be tied with the formula 'Bhūrbhuvah svāścandramasam ca' (Tai. Br. III. 10. 2) and the nine deities 'omkāra, Agni (quoted above in note 685)' have to be invoked on the nine strands, then the upavīta is to be taken with the mantra 'devasya tvā' and then it is to be shown to the sun with the verse 'ud vayam tamasaspari' (Ṛg. I. 50. 10) and then the yajñopavīta is to be put on with the verse 'yajñopavitam &c.' Then there is to be a *japa* of the *gāyatrī* verse and then *ācamana*. For a brief statement of the mode of putting on a fresh sacred thread vide note below.⁷⁰²

The Baudhāyana-grhyaśeṣasūtra (II. 8. 1-12) gives a few insignificant points of difference as to the upanayana of kṣatriyas, vaiśyas, ambaṣṭha and karaṇa (son of a vaiśya from a śūdra female). It is not necessary to go into these details.

The next important question is as to whether upanayana was performed in the case of the blind, the deaf and dumb, the idiotic &c. Jaimini has established that those who are devoid of a limb⁷⁰³ are not eligible for agnihotra, but this inability arises only when the defect is incurable. Similarly the Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 14. 1, Gaut. 28. 41-42, Vas. 17. 52-54, Manu 9. 201, Yāj. II. 140-141, Viṣṇu. Dh. S. 15. 32 ff. lay down that persons who are impotent, *patita*, congenitally blind or deaf, cripple and those who suffer from incurable diseases are not entitled to share property on a partition, but are only entitled to be maintained. But they all allow even these to marry. As marriage is not possible for dvijātis unless upanayana precedes it, it appears that the ceremony of upanayana was gone through as far as it could be carried out in the case of the blind, the deaf and dumb &c. The Baud. gr. śeṣasūtra (II. 9) prescribes a special procedure for the upanayana of the deaf and dumb and idiots. The principal

702. In modern times whenever a new yajñopavīta has to be worn (because the one worn is lost or cut &c.) the ceremony briefly consists in repeating the three verses 'āpo hi ṣṭha' (Ṛg. X. 9. 1-3) over water with which the yajñopavīta is to be sprinkled; then there is the repetition of the *Gāyatrī* ten times (each time preceded by the *vyāhrtis*, as 'om bhūr bhuvah svah') and then the yajñopavīta is to be put on with the mantra 'yajñopavitam paramam' (cited above in note 662).

703. अङ्गहीनश्च तद्धर्मा । उत्पत्तौ निवृत्तयेनात् । जै. VI. 1. 41-42. The exclusion of these from inheritance will be dealt with later.

points in which their upanayana differs from that of others are that the offering of samidh, treading on a stone, putting on a garment, the tying of mekhalā, the giving of deer skin and staff are done silently, that the boy does not mention his name, it is the ācārya himself who makes offerings of cooked food or of clarified butter, all the mantras are muttered softly by the ācārya himself. The sūtra⁷⁰⁴ says that according to some the same procedure is followed as to other persons who are impotent, blind, lunatics, or suffering from such diseases as epilepsy, white leprosy or black leprosy &c. The Nirṇayasindhu quotes a passage from the Brahmapurāṇa cited in the Prayogapārijāta about the upanayana of the impotent, the deaf and others which contains rules similar to Baudhāyana's. The Sarṇ. Pr. (pp. 399-401) and S. R. M. (pp. 273-274) also quote the passage and explain it. The purāṇa⁷⁰⁵ says that those who cannot repeat the Gāyatrī (such as the deaf and dumb) should be brought near the teacher or fire and that the teacher should then touch them and then mutter the Gāyatrī himself, but that in other cases such as lunatics, they should be made to repeat the Gāyatrī at least if possible and if that too is not possible, then on touching them the ācārya should repeat it. The same purāṇa prescribes that kuṇḍa and golaka (the first being the offspring of an adulterous intercourse when the husband of the woman is living and the second when the husband is dead) should have upanayana performed in the same way as for the deaf and dumb, if it is known that the adulterer and the woman were both of the brāhmaṇa caste. There is some difference of opinion as to kuṇḍa and golaka. Manu (II. 174) defined them as above. Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 13. 1, Manu (10. 5) and Yāj. (I. 90, 92)⁷⁰⁶ expressly say that a person born of a brāhmaṇa from a brāhmaṇa woman belongs to the same caste only if he is born in lawful wedlock and that even the anuloma sons must be born in wedlock. The kuṇḍa and golaka being the offspring of adultery

704. षण्डजडङ्गीबान्धव्यसनिव्याधितोन्मत्तहीनाङ्गधिराधिकाङ्गामयानि-अपस्मारि-
श्विचि-कुष्ठि-दीर्घरोगिणश्चैतेन व्याख्याता इत्येकः । बौ. गृ. शेषसूत्र II. 9. 14.

705. ध्वस्तपुस्त्वेषु चैतेषु संस्काराः सृष्ट्योचितम् । मत्तोन्मत्तौ न संस्कार्याविति
केचित्प्रचक्षते । कर्मस्वनाधिकाराच्च पातित्यं नास्ति चैतयोः । तदुपत्यं च संस्कार्यमपरे त्वाहु-
रन्वया । संस्कारमन्त्रहोमादीन् करोत्याचार्य एव तु । उपनेयाश्च विधिवद्वाचार्यैः स्वसमीपतः ।
आनीयाग्निमीपं वा सावित्रीं स्पृश्य वा जपेत् । कन्यास्वीकरणादन्यत्सर्वं विधेयं कारयेत् । एव-
मेव द्विजैर्जातौ संस्कार्यौ कुण्डगोलकौ ॥ ब्रह्मपुराण quoted in निर्णयसिन्धु and संस्कार-
प्रकाश; the सृष्ट्यर्थसार (p. 4) quotes some of these verses.

706. विस्मयनेष विधिः स्रुतः ॥ या. I. 92.

would not really be brāhmaṇas even though both parents were brāhmaṇas. Thus, though these two are not strictly brāhmaṇas, upanayana of a secondary kind is allowed to them. Manu (III. 156) included the *kuṇḍa* and *golaka* among brāhmaṇas not to be invited at śrāddha. Elaborate discussions have been held why they were so specially mentioned, when they were not on Manu's own dictum brāhmaṇas. Some like the author of the Saṁgraha held that the *kuṇḍa* and *golaka* forbidden by Manu in śrāddha were those born under the ancient practice of niyoga; while others repudiated the idea that those born under the practice of niyoga had any taint attaching to them.⁷⁰⁷

It is not necessary to go into the question of the upanayana of mixed castes. Manu (X. 41) says that the six anulomas are eligible for the rites of *dvijas* (and so for upanayana) and the Mit.⁷⁰⁸ on Yāj. I. 92 and 95 says that the anulomas have upanayana performed according to the rules of the caste of the mother and further mixed castes arising from the six anuloma castes in the anuloma order are also eligible for upanayana. The Baud. gr. śeṣasūtra II. 8 gives rules for the upanayana of kṣatriyas, vaiśyas and of mixed castes like rathakāra, ambastha &c. Gaut.⁷⁰⁹ IV. 21 made an exception in the case of the son of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra woman. All *pratilomas* were like śūdra according to Manu (IV. 41) and the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a śūdra woman, though anuloma, was like *pratilomas*. A śūdra is only *ekajāti* and not *dvijāti* (Gaut. X. 51) and for the *pratilomas* (as well as for the śūdra) there was no upanayana.

Upanayana was so highly thought of that some of the ancient texts prescribe a method of upanayana for the Aśvattha tree. Vide Baud. gr. śeṣasūtra II. 10. In modern times also rarely this upanayana is performed. To the west of the Aśvattha tree homa is performed, the saṁskāras from puṁsavana are imitated but with the vyāhṛtis only, the tree being touched with Rg. III.

707. Vide स्मृतिचन्द्रिका on आद्र (II. pp. 399-400, Gharpure's ed.) for this elaborate discussion; vide also संस्कारप्रकाश pp. 397-398.

708. अतश्च मूर्धावसिक्कादीनां क्षत्रियादेरुक्तेरेव दण्डाजिनोपवीतादिभिर्पुन्यनादिकं कार्यम् । मिता० on या. I. 92 and 'एवं ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियोत्पन्नमूर्धावसिक्कादिभ्यः दण्डलोमसंकरे जात्यन्तरता उपनयनादिप्राप्तिसिद्धे वेदितव्या तयोर्द्विजातित्वात् ।' मिता० on या. I. 95.

709. प्रतिलोमास्तु धर्महीनाः । शुद्धायां च । गौतम IV. 20-21; अशुद्धाणामदुष्ट-कर्मणासुपायनं वेदाध्ययनमन्याधेयं फलवन्ति च कर्माणि । आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 1, 6.

8. 11 'vanaspate'. A piece of cloth is held between the tree and the performer, then eight auspicious verses are repeated (maṅga-lāṣṭaka), the cloth is removed and then the hymn called Dhruva-sūkta (Rg. X. 72. 1-9) is repeated. Other mantras (like Rg. X. 62-63) are also recited. Then a piece of cloth, yajñopavita, girdle, staff and deer-skin are given with appropriate mantras and lastly after touching the tree, the Gāyatrī is repeated. In E. C. vol. III. Malavalli No. 22 there is a reference to the upanayana of Āśvattha trees performed by one Bāchappa in 1358 A. D.

Sāvitrīyupadeśa :—It will be seen from the passage of the Śat. Br. quoted above (in note 625) that the sacred Gāyatrī verse was imparted in very ancient times to the student by the teacher a year, or six months, 24, 12 or 3 days after upanayana and that the Śat. Br. prescribes that in the case of brāhmaṇa students this must be done immediately. This ancient rule was probably due to the fact that students in those far-off times when they came to the teacher at the age of seven or eight had hardly any previous instruction and so must have found it difficult to pronounce properly and correctly the sacred verse immediately on initiation. It is for this reason that so modern a work as the S. R. M. (p. 194) says that such mantras as 'Śan-no devīrabhiṣṭaye' (Rg. X. 9. 4) which have to be repeated by the brahmacārī in the rites of upanayana should be taught to him even before upanayana, just as the wife (who being a woman had no upanayana performed) was taught the Vedic mantras accompanying such acts as that of examining ājya in sacrifices.⁷¹⁰ The same rule⁷¹¹ of postponing the instruction in Gāyatrī is stated in Śān. gr. II. 5, Mānava gr. I. 22. 15, Bhār. gr. I. 9, Pār. gr. II. 3. The general practice however seems to have been to impart the Gāyatrī that very day. According to most of the sūtras the teacher sits to the north of the fire facing the east and in front of him the student sits facing the west and then the student requests the teacher to recite to him the verse sacred to Savitrī and the teacher imparts to him first one pāda at a time, then two pādas and then the whole. According

710. ब्रह्मचारिकर्तृकक्रियाकरणीभूतमन्त्राणां शं नो देवीरित्येवमादीनामुपनयना-
त्यगिव शिक्षणे कर्तव्यं सूत्रवृत्तिकृद्भ्यस्तुज्ञातत्वात् । पत्न्या यथाऽवेक्षणादिमन्त्राणाम् । सं.
रत्नमाला p. 194.

711. संवत्सरे सावित्रीमन्त्राद् विरात्रमन्त्रं वा । शां. गृ. II. 5 ; तां स्वस्तिमां
सावित्रीं संवत्सरदिक आहर्द्वादशरात्रादेकं विरात्रादेकं सत्य एके । भारद्वाज गृ. I. 9.

to Baud. gr. II. 5. 34-37 the student places on the fire four fuel sticks of the palāśa or other sacrificial tree anointed with clarified butter and repeats mantras to Agni, Vāyu, Āditya and the lord of *vratas* with 'svāhā' when offering⁷¹² them. Various intricate modes occur in the sūtras and the commentaries thereon about how this first instruction in Gāyatrī is to be carried out. The differences are due to the place assigned to the vyāhrtis⁷¹³ (bhūh, bhuvah, svah). Two illustrations are set out below from Sudarśana⁷¹⁴ on Āp. gr. II. 11. The syllable 'om' has been looked upon as very sacred from ancient times and is a symbol of the Supreme Being. The Tai. Br. II. 11 contains a eulogy of 'omkāra' and quotes Rg. I. 164. 39 in support 'ro akṣare parama &c.' taking the word 'akṣara' to mean the 'omkāra'. The Tai. Up. I. 8. says '(syllable) om is Brahma; om is all this (universe)'. A brāhmaṇa about to begin the teaching (of the Veda) says 'om' with the idea that he may reach near *brahma*. 'Om' is called *praṇava*. Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 13. 6 says 'omkāra is the door to

712. अग्ने व्रतपते सावित्रं व्रतं चरिष्यामि तच्छक्रेयं तन्मे राक्षतां स्वाहा । वायो व्रतपते आदित्य व्रतपते व्रतानां व्रतपते सावित्रं व्रतं चरिष्यामि तच्छक्रेयं तन्मे राक्षतां स्वाहा । बौ. गृ. II. 5. 36-37.

713. The mystic words भूः, भुवः, स्वः are sometimes called महाव्याहृतिः (vide Gobhila gr. II. 10. 40, Manu II. 81). They are also called simply व्याहृतिः; vide तै. उप. I. 5. 1, where महः is said to be the 4th. The number of vyāhrtis is usually seven, भूः, भुवः, स्वः, महः, जनः, तपः, सत्यं (Vasiṣṭha 25. 9, Vaik. VII. 9). Gautama (1. 52. and 25. 8) speaks of only five, viz भूः, भुवः, स्वः, पुरुषः, सत्यं, while the व्याहृतिसाम has the same five, but पुरुष is last.

714. व्याहृतीर्विहताः पादादिष्वन्तेषु वा तथर्धचर्योक्तमां कृत्स्नायाम् । आप. गृ. II. 11. 11; on which सुदर्शन says 'ओं भूस्तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यम् । ओं भुवः भर्गो देवस्य धीमहि । ओं स्वः धियो यो नः प्रचोदयात् । ओं भूस्तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यं भर्गो देवस्य धीमहि । ओं भुवः धियो यो नः प्रचोदयात् । ओं सुवः तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यं भर्गो देवस्य धीमहि धियो यो नः प्रचोदयात्'; this is one method; another is to put the vyāhrtis at the end e. g. ओं तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यं भूः । ओं भर्गो देवस्य धीमहि भुवः । ओं धियो यो नः प्रचोदयात् भुवः । ओं तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यं ... धीमहि भूः । ओं धियो यो नः प्रचोदयात् सुवः । ओं तत्सवितुर्वरेण्यं ... धीमहि भूः; compare Bhār. gr. I. 9. बौ. गृ. II. 5. 40 is the same as आप. गृ. II. 11. 11. स्वः is often pronounced as सुवः. ओमिति ब्रह्म । ओमितीदं सर्वम् । ... ओमिति ब्राह्मणः प्रवक्ष्यामि ब्रह्मोपासनातीति । ब्रह्मोपासनातीति । तै. उ. I. 8; योगसूत्र I. 27 declares 'तस्य वाचकः प्रणवः'. ओंकारः स्वर्गद्वारं तस्माद् ब्रह्माध्येष्यमाण एतदादि प्रतिपद्येत । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 13. 6. मेधाः on मनु II. 74 'सर्वदाग्रहण-मध्ययनविधिमाम्रधर्मो यथा स्यात् । ... अतो हेममन्त्रजपशःखादुवचनयाज्यादीनामारम्भे नास्ति प्रणवोऽन्यत्रापि उदाहरणार्थं वैदिकवाक्यस्याहारे.' In the माण्डूक्योपनिषद् (12) and in गौडपाद's कात्तिक (I. 24-29) ओंकार is identified with the supreme Brahma.

heaven; therefore one who is about to study the Veda, should start his study by first repeating *om*.’ Manu (II. 74) prescribes the repetition of praṇava at the beginning and at the end of daily Vedic study and further on (II. 76) says that the three letters ‘a’, ‘u’, ‘m’ (in *om*) and the three vyāhṛtis were distilled from the three vedas by Prajāpati as the essence. Medhātithi on Manu (II. 74) says that ‘*om* must be uttered at the beginning of the daily Vedic study by the student or by the householder (when performing brahmayajña), but it is not necessary in japa’ &c. In the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa chap. 42, Vāyu chap. 20, Vṛddha-Hārīta-smṛti VI. 59-62 and in numerous other places there are hyperbolical or esoteric identifications of the three letters of *om* with Viṣṇu, Lakṣmī and the jīva, with the three Vedas, with the three worlds, with three fires &c. In the Kāthopaniṣad I. 2. 15-17 *om* is said to be the end of all Vedas, the source of the knowledge of *brahma* and also its symbol.

The sacred Gāyatrī verse is Rg. III. 62. 10 and occurs in the other Vedas also. It is addressed to Savitr (the sun) and may also be interpreted as a prayer to the Source and Inspirer of everything. It literally means ‘we contemplate that esteemed (longed for) refulgence (glory) of the divine Savitr who may inspire our intellects (or actions)’. Some gṛhya sūtras prescribe the same verse for all students, whether brāhmaṇas, kṣatriyas or vaiśyas. But others say that for brāhmaṇa the Sāvitrī verse is the Gāyatrī, but for kṣatriyas and vaiśyas, a sāvitrī (verse addressed to Savitr) in the *Trīṣṭubh* (having 11 syllables in each quarter) or *Jagatī* (12 syllables in each quarter) should be the proper one. Here again there is difference. According to the commentators on the Kāthaka gr. (41. 20), the verse ‘adabdebbhiḥ savitā’ (Kāthakam IV. 10) and the verse ‘Viśvā rūpāṇi’ (Kāthakam XVI. 8) are cited as the Sāvitrī for a kṣatriya and a vaiśya respectively; while the commentator on Śāp. gr. (II. 5. 4-6) says that the *Trīṣṭubh* which is to be taught as the Sāvitrī to the kṣatriya students is ‘ā kṛṣṇena rajasā’

Rg. I. 35. 2) and the *Jagatī* Sāvitrī for the vaiśya is ‘Hiranyapāṇiḥ savitā’ (Rg. I. 35. 9) or ‘hamsaḥ śuciṣad’ (Rg. IV. 40. 5). According to the Vārāhaḥgrhya (5) ‘devo yāti savitā’ and ‘yūñjate manaḥ’ (Rg. V. 81. 1) are the *Trīṣṭubh* and *Jagatī* meant as Sāvitrī for the kṣatriya and vaiśya respectively. According to Śātātapa quoted in the Madanapārijāta (p. 23) the verse ‘Deva savitaḥ’ (Tai. S. I. 7. 7. 1, Kāthakam XIII. 14) is the sāvitrī for the kṣatriya. According to Medhātithi on Manu II. 38 ‘ā kṛṣṇena’ (Rg. I. 35. 2) and ‘viśvā rūpāṇi’ (Kāthakam XVI. 8)

are the two Sāvitrīs respectively for kṣatriya and vaiśya. That all these rules about the Sāvitrī being in the Gāyatrī, Trīṣṭubh and Jagatī metres for the three varṇas respectively are probably very ancient follows from the text 'gāyatrīyā brāhmaṇamasraṇata trīṣṭubhā rājanyam &c.' (quoted in note 356 above). The Āsv. gr., Āp. gr., and some other sūtras are entirely silent on the point, while Pār. gr. II. 3 allows an option viz. all varṇas may learn the Gāyatrī or the Sāvitrī verses in the Gāyatrī, Trīṣṭubh and Jagatī respectively.⁷¹⁵ Why the Gāyatrī verse (Rg. III. 62. 10) came to be famous it is difficult to say. Its fame was probably due to its grand simplicity and to its adaptability to an idealistic conception of the world as emanating from an all-pervading Intelligence. The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (I. 32-33) explains the Gāyatrī in various ways. In the Tai. Ār. (II. 11) it is stated that the mystic words 'bhūh. bhuvah, svaḥ' are the truth (essence) of speech and that Sāvītā in the Gāyatrī means 'one who engenders glory'.⁷¹⁶ Atharvaveda 19. 71. 1 calls it 'vedamātā' and prays that it may confer long life, glory, children, cattle &c. on the singer.⁷¹⁷ The Br. Up. V. 14. 1-6⁷¹⁸ contains a sublime eulogy of Gāyatrī which word is there derived from 'gaya' meaning 'prāṇa', and the root 'trai' (to save) and it is said that when the teacher repeats the Gāyatrī for the benefit of the young student he thereby saves the boy's life (from ignorance and the effects of sin). The Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 10 mentions a brāhmaṇa text to the effect that the Sāvitrī is recited for all the Vedas (i. e. by its recital all Vedas become recited as it is their essence). Manu II. 77 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 55. 14) says that each pāda of the Sāvitrī was as if extracted from each of the three Vedas and that (II. 81 = Viṣṇu Dh. S. 55. 15) the Sāvitrī together with om and the three mystic syllables (bhūh &c.) is the mouth of Vedic lore (since Vedic study starts with it, or 'brahma' may mean 'the Supreme Being'). Manu II. 77-83, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 55. 11-17, Śaṅkhasmṛti XII, Samvarta (verses 216-223),

715. गायत्रीं ब्राह्मणायानुब्रूयादाग्नेयो वै ब्राह्मण इति श्रुतेस्त्रिष्टुभं राजन्यस्य जगती वैश्यस्य सर्वेषां वा गायत्रीम् । पार. गृ. II. 3.

716. त्रीनेव प्रायुक्कं धर्षुवः सुवरित्याहृतैर्वाचः सत्यं यदेव वाचः सत्यं तत्प्रायुक्कं । अथ सावित्रीं गायत्रीं त्रिरन्वाह पच्छोऽर्धचशोऽनवानं सविता अत्रियः प्रसविता । तै. आ. II. 11 (अनवानं means 'without stopping or break').

717. स्तुता मया वरदा वेदमाता प्रचोदयन्तां पावमानो हि जानाम् । आयुः प्राणं प्रजो पशुं कीर्तिं द्रविणं ब्रह्मवर्चसम् । मह्यं दत्त्वा व्रजत ब्रह्मलोकम् ॥ अथर्ववेद 19. 71. 1.

718. सा ह्येषा गयास्तत्रे प्राणा वै गयास्तत्प्राणास्तत्रे तद्यद्यास्तत्रे तस्माद्गायत्री नाम स यामेवायं सावित्रीमन्वाहैषैव सा स यस्मा अन्वाह तस्य प्राणांश्चायते । बृ. उ. V. 14. 4.

Bṛhat-Parāśara chap. V (where the mystical significance of each of the 24 letters of the Gāyatrī is explained) and numerous⁷¹⁹ other works contain hyperbolic eulogies of Gāyatrī. Parāśara V. 1 calls it 'Vedamātā'. The words 'Āpo jyoti rasomṛtam brahna bhūr-bhuvah svarom' are said to be the śiras (head) of the Gāyatrī (vide Śaṅkhaśmṛti XII. 12). Manu (II. 104) and others prescribe that every day a brahmacārī (as well as others) must perform japa of Gāyatrī. Baud. Dh. S. II 4. 7-9 prescribes that in the evening Saṁdhyā adoration one should murmur the Gāyatrī a thousand times, or a hundred times with prāṇāyāma each time or ten times with 'om' and the seven vyāhṛtis.⁷²⁰ Vas. Dh. S. 26. 15 prescribes that a man desirous of purifying himself from sin should repeat the divine Gāyatrī 1000 times (daily) as the maximum or 100 times (as the middle way) or at least ten times. There are mantras for invoking the Gāyatrī and for taking leave of it.⁷²¹

Brahmacārī-dharmāḥ :—Certain rules and observances are prescribed for all brahmacārins⁷²². They are of two kinds, some are prescribed for a very short time and some have to be observed for all the years of studenthood. The Āśv. gr. I. 22. 17⁷²³ says " for three nights, or twelve nights or a year, after upanayana

719. Vide Sm. C. I. pp. 143-152 for lengthy remarks on several matters connected with the Gāyatrī; on p. 145 there is a *dhyaṇa* of the 24 letters of the sacred verse. याज्ञ. I. 23 refers to the śiras of Gāyatrī.

720. विश्वरूप on या. I. 25 quotes a verse of हारीत 'देवी सहस्रशीर्षा तु शतमध्या दशवरा । जपेदतः सहस्रान्तां शतमध्यां दशवरा ।' and adds तत्तु कारयेत्परोधा-द्विहोत्रिविषयं द्रष्टव्यम् । माङ्ग सूर्योदयादुपस्थानादुपपत्तेरुत्कर्ष इति केचित् । न त्वेवं समाचारः ।

721. The आवाहनमन्त्र acc. to गोभिल is 'आयाहि वरदे देवि अक्षरे ब्रह्मवादिनि । गायत्रीं छन्दसां मातर्ब्रह्मयोने नमोऽस्तु ते ॥' quoted in स्मृतिच० (I. p. 143) and the विसर्जनमन्त्र is 'उत्तरे शिखरे जाता भूम्यां पर्वतवासिनि । ब्रह्मणा सममुज्जाते गच्छ देवि ययासुखम्' quoted in the गृहस्थरत्नाकर p. 241. The स्मृतिच० (I. p. 151) quotes from गोभिल 'महेश्वरसुखोत्पन्ना विष्णोर्हृदयसंभवा । ब्रह्मणा ... यथेच्छया' and also 'उत्तमे शिखरे जाते &c.' These are recited in the modern *Saṁdhyā* also.

722. अथ एवासीताथः शयिताथस्तिष्ठेदधो व्रजेत् । गोपथ 2. 4.

723. अत ऊर्ध्वमक्षारलवणाक्षी ब्रह्मचार्यधःशायी त्रिरात्रं द्वादशरात्रं संवत्सरं वा । आश्व. गृ. I. 22. 17; त्र्यहमेतमाग्निं धारयन्ति क्षारलवणवर्जमधःशय्या च । बौ. गृ. II. 5. 55; त्रिरात्रं क्षारलवणदुग्धमिति वर्जयेत् । खादिर गृ. II. 4. 33. There is great divergence of views on the meaning of क्षारलवण. According to Nārāyaṇa on आश्व. गृ. I. 8. 10 क्षार means certain cereals 'हैडिम्बका राजमाषा माषा सुद्धा मसुरिकाः । लङ्क्याद्व्याध्वान् निष्णावास्तितायाः क्षारसंज्ञिताः ।'; मातृदत्त on हिरण्यकोशि गृ. I. 8. 1 explains 'शुद्धादिरिक्षुविकाः क्षारः'; मेधा० on मनु V. 72 explains that क्षार means such salts as चक्षार and लवण means सैन्धव. हरदत्त on आप. घ. सू. II. 6. 15. 12 explains 'यद् भक्ष्यमाणं पश्यतो लालोत्पद्यते तत् क्षारं शुद्धलिकुचादि.' कुल्लुक on मनु V. 72 explains क्षारलवण as 'manufactured salt'.

the brahmacārī should not eat 'kṣāra' and 'lavaṇa' and should sleep on the ground". The same rule is stated by Baud. gr. II. 5. 55 (adding the maintenance of the fire kindled at the upanayana for three days), Bhār. gr. I. 10, Pār. gr. II. 5, Khādīra gr. II. 4. 33 (adding avoidance of milk also for three days). Hir. gr. (I. 8. 2) specially prescribes for the first three days the avoidance of kṣāra, of lavaṇa and vegetables, and the duty of sleeping on the ground, of not drinking out of an earthen vessel, of not giving the remnants of his food to śūdras and several other observances which he has to continue throughout the period of student-hood. These latter are briefly indicated in Manu II. 108 and 176 viz. offering *samidhs* into fire, begging for food, not using a cot, working for the teacher, daily bath, *tarpaṇa* of gods, sages and pitṛs &c.

The observances that last throughout the period of student-hood are first seen in the passage of the Śat. Br. (quoted above in note 625). The same are laid down in Āśv. gr. I. 22. 2 (quoted on p. 283 above), Pār. gr. II. 3, Āp. Mantrapāṭha (II. 6. 14), Kāthaka gr. (41. 17) and other texts. These are principally ācamana, guruśuśrūṣā, vāksamyama (silence), samidādhāna. When the teacher says in the upanayana 'drink water, do work &c', the student is to reply with the word 'yes' ('bādhm' or om). But the sūtras and smṛtis lay down many rules about these and other observances; vide Gaut. II. 10-40, Śaṅ. gr. II. 6. 8, Gobhila gr. III. 1.27, Khādīra gr. II. 5. 10-16, Hir. gr. 8.1-7, Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 11-I. 2. 7. 30, Baud. Dh. S. I. 2, Manu II. 49-249, Yāj. I. 16-32 &c. The rules centre principally round agniparicaryā (worshipping fire), bhikṣā (begging for food), samdhyopāsana, study of Veda and its methods and duration, avoidance of certain foods and drinks and other matters like singing &c., guruśuśrūṣā (including honouring him and his family and other elders), and the special *vratas* of the brahmacārī. These principal topics will be dealt with in some detail now. Before doing so some other matters will have to be briefly disposed off.

On the 4th day after upanayana a rite was performed called Medhājanana⁷²⁴ (generation of intelligence) by virtue of which

724. Compare मेधाजनन in जातकर्म above (on p. 233). 'वेदग्रहणसामर्थ्य-युक्ता मेधावुजायते । येन तन्मेधाजननकर्मोपदिशति स्वयम् ॥' संग्रह quoted in सं. म. p. 446. Three directions viz. south, south-east and south-west are objectionable (निन्दित); the rest are unobjectionable. शौनक (quoted in संस्कारप्रकाश p. 445) 'स्ववासपेक्षयाश्रेयीं दिशं याम्यां च नैर्ऋतीम् । वज्रित्वा दिशोऽग्निव्यास्तित्तोऽन्यस्यां दिशि स्थितम् ॥

it was supposed that the student's intellect was made capable of mastering Vedic lore. Āśv. gr. I. 22. 18-19 deals with this. The teacher makes the student sprinkle water in an unobjectionable direction thrice from the left to the right with a pot of water round about a palāśa tree that has one root, or round a bunch of kuśa grass if there is no palāśa, and makes him repeat the mantra 'Oh glorious one, thou art glorious. As thou, glorious one, are glorious, thus, glorious one, make me full of glory. As thou art the preserver of the treasure of sacrifice for the gods, thus may I become the preserver of the treasure of Veda among men'⁷²⁵. The Bhār. gr. (I. 10) also prescribes this rite on the fourth day after upanayana and says that a palāśa tree with one root is to be anointed with *ājya* and the mantra 'suśravaḥ' (the same as in Āśv.) is to be muttered. Kāthaka gr. 41. 18, Mānava gr. I. 22. 17 also refer to this. The Śaṁ. Pr. (pp. 444-446) gives a more elaborate description. In addition to what is stated in Āśv. gr. it quotes from Śaunaka and adds a few more details, viz. the student deposits at the root of the palāśa his garments already worn, the staff and the girdle and then wears new ones and then when the boy returns to the house, a stream of water is poured before him. The teacher takes the garments &c. left by the boy. The Āp. gr. 11. 24 says that on the fourth day the teacher takes the garments worn on the day of upanayana by the student and the boy wears new ones. Sudarśana on Āp. 11. 24 speaks of palāśa-karma on the fourth day. The boy goes out with his ācārya to the east or north and three sthaṇḍilas are prepared to the north or east of a palāśa tree and on these three praṇava (om), śraddhā and medhā are invoked, are worshipped with unguents, flowers, lamp &c. (as in the regular worship of an image), then the praṇava is worshipped with the formula 'yaś-chandasām' to 'śrutam me gopāya' (Tai. Up. I. 4. 1), śraddhā with the hymn 'śraddhayāgniḥ' Rg. X. 151 and Medhā with the anuvāka 'Medhā devī' (Tai. Ār. X. 39). Then the staff is deposited at the foot of the palāśa, another staff is taken and the student returns to the house with the ācārya. In modern times in the Deccan a similar ceremony is gone through under the (Marāṭhī) name 'Paḷasulā'.

725. सुश्रवाः has two meanings (1) 'glorious,' (2) 'who hears well' (i. e. who learns the Veda well by hearing it from the teacher). This occurs in आप. म. पृ. II. 5. 1 also (but in आप. पृ. XI. 14 it is the मन्त्र for taking the staff).

We have seen above that the student has to offer *samidh* (fuel stick) into the fire on the day of upanayana. The fire kindled at the time of upanayana was to be kept up for three days and the fuel-sticks were offered in that fire during those days. Afterwards *samidh* was to be offered in the ordinary fire (vide Baud. gr. II. 5. 55-57, Āp. gr. 11. 22). The student is required to offer every day after upanayana a *samidh* into fire in the evening and in the morning. Āśv. gr. I. 22. 6 prescribes this and the commentator Nārāyaṇa adds that in so doing he has to observe the procedure prescribed in Āśv. gr. I. 20. 10-I. 21. 4 for the putting on of *samidh* on the first day. Śān. gr. II. 10, Manu II. 186, Yāj. I. 25 and almost all others prescribe the offering of *samidh* into fire in the evening as well as in the morning; but Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 4. 17 notes that according to some 'agnipūjā' was to be performed in the evening only. Āp. Dh. S. (1. 1. 4. 14-20) lays down the following rules: 'the student⁷²⁶ should always bring fuel from the forest and heap it on a low place (otherwise if placed high it may fall on anybody's head), one should not go out after sunset for bringing fuel-sticks. Having kindled fire, having swept round it he should offer fuel-sticks in the evening and the morning as already directed (in the grhyasūtra). One should sweep round the fire that is burning red-hot with the hand and not with a broom (of kuśa grass).' The Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 12 further prescribes that no fuel is to be placed on fire (in śrauta and smārta rites) unless water has been sprinkled over it. The student had not only to offer *samidhs* on his own account into the fire, but he had to help his ācārya in the latter's worship of fire by bringing fuel and by offering oblations for his ācārya when the latter was away on a journey or was ill. The Āśv. gr. I. 9. 1 says⁷²⁷ 'beginning from marriage a householder should worship grhya fire himself or his wife or son or maiden daughter or pupil may do so.' The Chāndogya Up. IV. 10 contains the story of Upakosala Kāmalāyana who was a student of Satyakāma Jābāla and looked after his teacher's fires for twelve years and whom Satyakāma did not teach anything, though the wife of Satyakāma interceded on behalf of the dejected pupil.

726. सदारण्यादेधानाहृत्याधो निदध्यात् । नास्तमिते समिद्धारो गच्छेत् । अग्निमिदध्वा परिसमूह्य समिध आदध्यात्सार्यं प्रार्थयथोपदेशम् । सायमेवाग्निपूजेत्येके । समिद्धमाग्निं पाणिना परिसमूहेन समुहृत्या । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 4. 14-18; नापेक्षितमिन्धनमज्ञावाद्दध्यात् । आप. ध. सू. I. 5. 15. 12.

727. पाणिग्रहणादि शुभं परिचरेत्स्वयं पत्न्यपि वा पुत्रः कुमार्यन्तेवासी वा । आश्व. सू. I. 9. 1.; vide also शान्. सू. II. 17. 3 to the same effect. The various kinds of fires will be discussed later on under 'marriage.'

A few words about samidhs may be said here. The samidh⁷²⁸ must be of palāśa or some other yajñiya tree (used in sacrifices). Such trees are palāśa, āśvattha, nyagrodha, plakṣa, vaikāṅkata, udumbara, bilva, candana, sarala, śāla, devadāru and khadira. The Vāyupurāṇa quoted by Aparārka (p. 51) says that palāśa samidhs should be preferred, in their absence samidhs of khadira, in the absence of the first two, of śamī, rohitaka and āśvattha and in the absence of all these of arka and vetasa. The Trikāṇḍa-maṇḍana (II. 82-84) has several rules on this point. The principal trees for fuelsticks (samidh) are palāśa and khadira, but samidhs of kovidāra, bibhitaka, kapittha, karabha, rājavr̥kṣa, śakadruma, nipa, nimba, karañja, tilaka, śleṣmātaka or śālmali are not to be employed. The samidh was not to be thicker than the thumb, was to have its bark on it, was not to be worm-eaten nor divided, nor longer nor shorter than the span (prādeśa) nor having two branches, it was to be without leaves and was to be strong.⁷²⁹ According to Hārīta 'when death wanted to seize the brahmacārī formerly, Agni saved him from death and so a brahmacārī should serve fire'.⁷³⁰

The number of samidhs varied as shown above and not only in the worship of Agni by the brahmacārī, but also elsewhere.

Bhikṣā :—The Āśv. gr. after prescribing begging for food states (I. 22. 7-8) that the student should first beg of a man who would not refuse or of a woman who would not refuse and that in begging he should say 'sir, give food'. More detailed rules are laid down by others.

The Hir. gr. (S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 157) says "after giving the student the staff the teacher gives him a bowl (for collecting

728. पलाशाश्वत्थन्यग्रोधप्लक्षवैकङ्कतोद्भवाः । अश्वत्थोदुम्बरौ विल्वश्चन्दनः सरल-
स्तथा । शालश्च देवदाशश्च खादिरश्चेति यज्ञियाः ॥ ब्रह्मपुराण quoted in कृत्परत्नाकर
p. 61, where अश्वत्थन्यग्रोध is said to mean अश्वत्थसंपृक्तो वटः ; the same
verses are quoted in हेमाद्रि, व्रतखण्ड part 1 p. 76 as शमीपलाशन्यग्रोधः ; com-
pare या. I. 302 for the nine samidhs for the nine grabhas. याज्ञ. I. 302 is the
same as मत्स्यपुराण 93. 27. Vide वायुपुराण vol. II. 13. 70-72 for similar verses.

729. नाङ्गुष्ठादधिका कार्या समित्स्थूलतया क्वचित् । न विद्युक्ता त्वच्चा चैव न सकीटा
न पादित्वा । प्रादेशाच्चधिका नोना तथा न स्याद्विशालिका । न सपर्णा न निर्वर्षा होमेषु च
विजानता ॥' quoted by अपरार्क p. 51 and स्मृतिच० (I. p. 33) as कात्वायन's
(= गोभिलस्मृति I. 114-115).

730. पुरा जग्राह वै मृत्युर्हिंसयन् ब्रह्मचारिणम् । अग्निंस्तं मोक्षयामास तस्मात्परिचरेद्वि-
त् ॥ ब्रह्मचारी यदा त्वग्नावाद्ध्यत्समिधो नहि । गृह्णीयात्तं तदा मृत्युराद्ध्यत् समिध-
स्ततः ॥ Hārīta quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 33.

alms) and says to him 'go out for alms'. Let him beg of his mother first, then in other families which are generously disposed; he brings the food to his *guru* and announces it to him with the words '(these are) the alms' and then the teacher accepts with the words 'these are good alms'. The Baud. gr. II. 5. 47-53 gives the same rules and adds⁷³¹ that a brāhmaṇa student should beg with the words 'bhavati bhikṣām dehi' (lady, give me food), a kṣatriya with the words 'bhikṣām bhavati dehi' and a vaiśya with the words 'dehi bhikṣām bhavati.' Pār. gr. II. 5, Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 28-30, Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 17, Manu II. 49, Yāj. I. 30 and others contain the same rules about addressing the ladies for alms.⁷³² Pār. gr. II. 5 says that the student should first beg of three women who would not refuse or of six, of twelve or of an unlimited number and that according to some he should first beg of his mother. Manu II. 50 says that he should first beg of his mother, sister or mother's sister. Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 26 says that if women refuse to give alms to a devout brahmacārī he snatches away or destroys their merit arising from sacrifices, gifts and burnt offerings, progeny, cattle, spiritual glory (of their families) and food and quotes a Brāhmaṇa passage 'therefore indeed one should not refuse to give food to a crowd of students moving about (for alms) for fear that among them there may be some one who is like this (a devout student), and who has carried out all the observances for students.' If a brahmacārī cannot get food elsewhere he may beg from his own family, from his elders (like maternal uncles), his relatives and lastly from his ācārya himself. As to the persons⁷³³ from whom to beg for food, one sees how the growing strictness of caste rules about food during the lapse of centuries affected the brahmacārī. Āp. Dh. S.⁷³⁴ I. 1. 3. 25 prescribes that

731. अथास्मै अरिक्तं पात्रं प्रयच्छन्नाह । मातरमेवाग्रे भिक्षस्वेति । स मातरमेवाग्रे भिक्षेत । भवति भिक्षां देहीति ब्राह्मणो भिक्षेत । भिक्षां भवति देहीति राजन्यः । देहि भिक्षां भवतीति वैश्यः । तत्समाहृत्याचार्य प्राह भैक्षमिदमिति । तत्सु भैक्षमितीतरः प्रतिगृह्णाति । बौ. गृ. II. 5. 47-53.

732. Vide श्रौ. गृ. II. 6. 5-8, गोभिलगृ. II. 10. 42-44, खादिरगृ. II. 4. 28-31 for similar rules.

733. गौतम II. 43-44 'आचार्यज्ञातिगुरुस्वेष्टलाभेऽन्यत्र । तेषां पूर्वं पूर्वं परिहरेत् ।'; मनु II. 184 has the same rule.

734. सर्वलाभमाहरन्गुरवे सायंप्रातरमत्रेण भिक्षाचर्यं चरोद्धिक्षमाणोऽन्यत्रापपात्रेभ्योऽभिक्षताञ्च । आप. ध. I. 1. 3. 25; सार्ववर्णिकभैक्षचरणनभिक्षस्तपतितवर्जम् । गौ. II. 41. अपपात्र is variously explained; on आप. ध. सू. I. 7. 21. 6 'न पतितैः संव्यवहारो विद्यते तथापपात्रैः' इदञ्च explains as चाण्डालादयः (with whom no social inter-

(Continued on next page)

he could beg food from anybody except *apapātras* (persons like *cāṇḍālas*) and *abhiśastas* (i. e. those who are guilty of or suspected of grave sins). Gaut. II. 41 expressly says that a *brahmacārī* may beg food from all the *varṇas* except from those who are *abhiśasta* and *patita*. Manu (II. 183 and 185) says a *brahmacārī* should beg for food at the houses of those who study the Veda and perform sacrifices, who are devoted to their duties and are virtuous in their conduct; if from such persons food cannot be had he may go about the whole village, but should avoid those who are *abhiśasta*. Yāj. I. 29 says 'for his own maintenance a *brahmacārī* should beg food from *brāhmaṇas* who are blameless' and the ancient commentator Viśvarūpa says that the best way is to beg at *brāhmaṇa* houses, the next best is to beg of *kṣatriya* and *vaiśya* houses and to beg of *śūdras* is allowed only in *āpad* (time of distress or difficulty). Auśanasa (Jiv. ed I. p. 505) says that a *brahmacārī* should beg only from houses of his own caste (as the best way probably) or he may beg at the houses of all *varṇas*, while Āṅgiras quoted in the Par. M. (I. 2, p. 41) says that even in a season of distress a *brahmacārī* should not beg for cooked food from *śūdras*. The Madanapārijāta p. 33 quotes a passage from the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa to the effect that a *brahmacārī* may beg food from anybody except a *śūdra*.

Food obtained by begging was supposed to be pure as said by Manu II. 189, Baud. Dh. S. I. 5. 56 and Yāj. I. 187. It was further said that a *brahmacārī* who subsists on food obtained by begging is like one observing a fast (Manu II. 183 and Bṛhat-Parāśara p. 130). The *brahmacārī* was to eat food collected from several houses and was not to take food at a single person's house, except that when he was requested to dinner in honour of gods or the Manes he might do so by partak-

(Continued from last page)

course was possible), while on आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 3. 25 he explains अपपात्र as प्रतिलोमाः रजकादयः'. The word literally means those who cannot be allowed to use the vessels out of which members of other castes are to take food (i. e. those vessels when used by them have to be broken or thrown away). अपराक p. 720 explains अपपात्र as पतितत्वात् ज्ञातिभिर्बहिष्कृतः (i. e. one who has lost caste through the commission of some mortal sin). According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 9. 24. 7-9 an *abhiśasta* is one that kills any *brāhmaṇa* or kills a *brāhmaṇa* woman who is Ātreya. According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 7. 21. 8 'abhiśastya' is one of the grave sins (and is explained by हरदत्त as ब्रह्महत्या, but हरदत्त explains अभिषस्ताः as उपपातकिनः on गौ. II. 41.

ing of such food at such dinners as would not violate his vows. Vide Manu II. 188-189 and Yāj. I. 32.

Corresponding to the duty of the student to beg was the obligation cast on householders to serve food according to their ability to *brahmacārins* and *yatis* (ascetics). Gautama V. 16 prescribes that after performing the daily *yajñas* to gods (*vaiśvadeva*) and offering *bali* to *bhūtas*, the householder should offer alms (of food) preceded by the word 'svasti' and by water. Manu III. 94, Yāj. I. 108 and others say that alms should be given to ascetics and *brahmacārins* with honour and welcome. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 108 says that alms should be ordinarily one morsel of food as large as the egg of a pea-hen and quotes a verse of Śātātapa⁷³⁵ saying that 'bhikṣā is as much as one morsel, that *puṣkala* is equal to four morsels, hanta is equal to four *puṣkals* and *agra* is equal to three *hantas*.'

The idea that a *brahmacārī* must beg for his food and offer fuel-sticks every day was so ingrained in ancient times that the Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 54 and Manu II. 187 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 52) prescribe that if for seven days continuously a *brahmacārī* who was not ill failed to offer fuel-sticks and to beg for food he violated his vow and had to undergo the same penance as was prescribed for a *brahmacārī* having sexual intercourse.⁷³⁶ Even in modern times many *brāhmaṇa* students (not only those who study the Veda from orthodox teachers but even those learning English) begged for their daily food and by dint of hard discipline, patient industry and integrity rose to high positions in public life. However the practice of poor begging students attending English schools in this way is dying out, since English education does not now ensure for the poor *brāhmaṇa* students even a bare maintenance.

Other important rules about the begging of food are that the student should not beg for his sake alone, should announce

735. भिक्षा च याससंमिता । यासश्च मयूराण्डपरिमाणः । यासमात्रा भवेद्भिक्षा पुष्कलं तच्चतुर्थ्यम् । हन्तस्तु तैश्चतुर्भिः स्यादग्रं तत् त्रिगुणं भवेत् ॥ इति शातातपस्मरणात् । मितः on याज्ञ. I. 108. अपराकं p. 153 quotes a verse from the मार्कण्डेयपुराण where अग्र and हन्त are defined differently 'यासममाणा भिक्षा स्यादग्रं यासचतुर्थ्यम् । अग्रं चतुर्थ्यं तत्तु हन्तकारं विदुर्बुधाः । भोजनं हन्तकारं वा अग्रं भिक्षामथापि वा । अदत्त्वा तु न भोक्तव्यं यथाविभवमात्मनः ॥' लघुशातातप 57 is very similar to the verse quoted by the मितः

736. भैक्षस्याचरणे दोषः पावकस्यासमिन्धने । ससत्रात्रमकृत्वैतद्वकीर्णिव्रतं चरेत् ॥ बौ. ध. सू. I. 2. 54. Manu (XI. 118-123) explains who is *avakīrṇin* and states the penance for him.

to the teacher all that he has brought and eat only that which the teacher directs him to take; if the teacher is gone on a journey then he should announce it to the teacher's family (wife, son); if even these are absent, then to other learned brāhmanas and eat with their permission. Vide Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 31-35, Manu II. 51. He should leave no residue in his dish and wash it after taking his meal therein. If he is not able to eat the whole that he has brought he should bury it underground or consign it to water or place that which is more than he can eat near an ārya or give it to a śūdra who works for his teacher (Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 3. 37-41). Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 3. 43-44) says that alms are held to be equal to sacrificial food, the teacher holds the place of the deity and of the āhavanīya fire.⁷³⁷

Other miscellaneous acts that the students had to do were bringing⁷³⁸ water for the ācārya in pots, collecting flowers, cowdung, earth, kuśa grass &c. (vide Manu II. 182).

Samdhyā:—On the day of upanayana there is no morning *saṁdhyā*. Jaimini⁷³⁹ says 'as long as there is no imparting of the Gāyatrī there is no *saṁdhyā*.' So the student begins his *saṁdhyā* in the noon of the day of upanayana. As however on that day he knows no Vedic text except the Gāyatrī, his whole *saṁdhyā* worship consists of the Gāyatrī.

The word 'saṁdhyā' literally means 'twilight', but also indicates the action of prayer performed in the morning and evening twilight. This act is generally styled 'saṁdhyopāsana' or 'saṁdhyāvandana' or simply 'saṁdhyā'.⁷⁴⁰ This act of adoration is sometimes prescribed as necessary thrice a day viz. at day-break, in the noon and at sun-set e.g. Atri⁷⁴¹ says 'a twice-born person possessed of the knowledge of the Self should perform three *saṁdhyā* adorations.' These are respectively named Gāyatrī (morning one), Sāvitrī (noon) and Sarasvatī

737. मनु II. 231 also calls the guru āhavanīya fire.

738. आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 4. 13 सायं प्रातरुदकुम्भमाहरेत् ।

739. यावद् ब्रह्मोपदेशो न तावत्संख्यादिकं न च । ततो मध्याह्नसंख्यादि सर्वं कर्म समाचरेत् ॥ जैमिनि quoted by सं. प्र. p. 439.

740. विश्वरूप on या. I. 25 says 'संध्येति चोपस्थानकर्मणो नामधेयं कालस्य चान्यतः प्राप्तत्वाद्' and the मिता. (on the same verse) says 'अहोरात्रयोः संधौ या क्रिया विधीयते सा संध्या'. मेधा. on मनु II. 101 says 'न सर्वं तमः क्षीणं नापि परिपूर्णः प्रकाश एषा संध्या।' and on IV.94 'सहचरिते जपादिविधौ संख्याशब्दो वर्तते' ।

741. संध्यात्रयं तु कर्तव्यं द्विजेनात्मविदा सदा । उभे संध्ये च कर्तव्ये ब्राह्मणैश्च गृहेष्वपि ॥ अत्रि quoted by अपरार्क p.49; पूर्वा संध्या तु गायत्री सावित्री मध्यमा स्मृता । या भवेत्पश्चिमा संध्या सा विज्ञेया सरस्वती ॥ योगया. (in अपरार्क p.49). Aparārka says that मध्याह्नसंध्या should not be performed in the house.

(evening one) by Yoga-yājñavalkya. Generally however the saṁdhyā prayer is prescribed twice (Āśv. gr. III. 7, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 8, Gaut. II. 17, Manu II. 101, Yāj. I. 24-25 &c).

All prescribe that the morning⁷⁴² prayer is to be begun before sunrise and should be carried on till the disc of the sun is seen on the horizon and the evening prayer begins when the disc of the sun is about to set and goes on up to the appearance of stars. This is the most proper time; but a secondary time was allowed up to three *ghaṭikās* after sunrise and sun-set. The duration of the prayer each time was to be one muhūrta (i. e. two *ghaṭikās*, according to Yoga-yājñavalkya) whatever the length of the day may be.⁷⁴³ Manu (IV. 93-94) however recommends the prayer to extend as long as one could afford, since the ancient sages secured long life, intelligence, glory, fame and spiritual eminence by long saṁdhyā prayers.⁷⁴⁴

According to most writers *japa* of Gāyatrī and other sacred mantras is the principal thing in saṁdhyā and other things such as mārjana are merely subsidiary, but Medhātithi on Manu II. 101 (where the words are 'japaṁstīṣṭhet' and not 'tīṣṭhan japeṭ') says that *japa* is subsidiary or secondary and the place of the prayer and the posture of the praying person are the principal items. When it is said 'one should perform the saṁdhyā' what is meant is that one should contemplate the deity called Āditya represented by the orb of the sun and should also contemplate on the fact that the same Intelligence dwells in his heart. The proper place for saṁdhyā prayer is outside the village (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 8, Gaut. II. 16, Mānava gr. I. 2. 2), in a lonely place (Śān. gr. II 9. 1 'aranye') or on a river or other sacred spot (Baud. gr. II. 4. 1). But this does not apply to the agnihotrīn,⁷⁴⁵ who has to perform vedic rites and repeat homa

742. तिष्ठेत्पूर्वमासीत्तत्तरां सज्ज्योतिष्या ज्योतिषो दर्शनाद्वाग्यतः । गौ. II. 17; सायसुत्तरापरभिमुखोऽवष्टमदेशं सावित्रीं जपेदर्धास्तमिते मण्डल आनक्षत्रदर्शनात् । एवं प्रातः । प्राङ्मुखस्तिष्ठन्ना मण्डलदर्शनात् । आश्व. य. III. 7. 4-6; vide also मनु II. 101.

743. ह्रासवृद्धी तु सततं दिवसानां यथाक्रमम् । संध्या सुहर्षमात्रं तु ह्रासे वृद्धौ तु सा स्मृता ॥ योगयज्ञवल्क्य quoted by अपराक p. 49 (on या. I. 25) and by कुल्लूक on मनु II. 101.

744. ऋषयो दीर्घसंध्यत्वाद्दीर्घमायुरवाप्नुयुः । प्रज्ञां यज्ञश्च कीर्तिं च ब्रह्मवर्चसमेव च ॥ मनु IV. 94. This is the same as अनुशासनपर्व 104. 18 (नित्यसंध्यं for दीर्घसंध्यं) and शङ्खस्मृति X. 20.

745. Vide मेधा. on मनु. II. 101 and हरद्वच on आप. ध. I. 11. 30. 8 about अग्निहोत्रिन्. The स्मृतिच. I. p. 136 quotes Vyāsa 'ते तथैव महाराज दंशिता रण-सूचनि । संध्यागतं सहस्रांशुमादित्यमुपतस्थिरे' to show that warriors, when engaged in battle, performed only the *upasihñā* and omitted all else.

mantras at sun-rise and who therefore may perform saṁdhyā adoration in his house. Vasiṣṭha quoted by Aparārka says that saṁdhyā performed in a cowpen or on a river or near the shrine of Viṣṇu (or other deity) respectively is ten times, 100000 of times or numberless times better than saṁdhyāvandana in the house.⁷⁴⁶ All prescribe that the morning saṁdhyā is to be performed standing and the evening one in a sitting posture (Āśv. gr. III. 7. 6, Śān. gr. II. 9. 1 and 3, Manu II. 103) and the morning saṁdhyā is to be performed facing the east and the evening one facing the northwest (Āśv. gr. III. 7. 4, Śān. gr. II. 9. 1). He is to bathe, to sit in a pure spot on a seat of kuśa grass, should have the sacred cord in the usual position and restrain his speech (i. e. should be silent and not talk in the midst of saṁdhyā).

The principal constituents of saṁdhyopāsana are these: ācamanas (sipping of water), prāṇāyāma, mārjana thrice (sprinkling himself with water to the accompaniment of several mantras), aghamarṣana, offering of water to the sun (arghya), japa of Gāyatrī, and upasthāna (reciting mantras by way of worship of the sun in the morning and generally of Varuṇa in the evening). Among the earliest references to Saṁdhyopāsana is the one in the Tai. Ār. II. 2,⁷⁴⁷ where it is said that when brahmavādins facing the east throw up water consecrated by the Gāyatrī, the evil spirits that fight with the sun are sent tumbling into the country (called) Mandeha Aruṇa (of the evil spirits). This shows that in ancient times saṁdhyā consisted principally of offering water (arghya) to the sun in worship and japa of Gāyatrī. Āśv. gr. III. 7. 3-6, Śān. gr. II. 9. 1-3 and others refer only to the japa of the Gāyatrī mantra in

746. गृहे त्वेकगुणा संध्या गोष्ठे दशगुणा स्मृता । शतसाहसिका नद्यामनन्ता विष्णु-
संनिधौ ॥ वसिष्ठ quoted in अपरार्क p. 50, while गृहस्थरत्नाकर p. 224 quotes
शातातपः 'गृहेषु प्राकृती संध्या गोष्ठे शतगुणा भवेत् । नदीषु शतसाहस्री अनन्ता शिवसंनिधौ ॥'
(प्राकृती एकगुणफलका) .

747. तानि ह वा एतानि रक्षांसि गायत्रियाभिमान्त्रितेनाम्भसा शाम्यन्ति तदु ह वा एते
ब्रह्मवादिनः पूर्वाभिमुखः संध्यायां गायत्रियाभिमान्त्रिता अप ऊर्ध्वं विक्षिपन्ति ता एता आपो
वज्रीभूत्वा तानि रक्षांसि मन्देहारुणे द्वीपे प्रक्षिपन्ति । तै. आ. II. 2 . The स्मृतिच- I.
p. 134 quotes some verses from योगयाज्ञवल्क्य (which are almost the same
as बाह्यपुराण vol. I. 50. 163-65) 'त्रिंशकोट्यस्तु विख्याता मन्देहा नाम राक्षसाः ।
प्रादुर्बन्ति सहस्रांशुसुदयन्तं दिने दिने ॥ अहन्यहनि ते सर्वे सूर्यमिच्छन्ति खादितुम् । अतः
सूर्यस्य तेषां तु शुद्धमासीत्सुदारणम् ॥ ततो देवगणाः सर्वे ऋषयश्च तपोधनाः । संध्यां तु
समुपासीना यक्षिपन्ति महज्जलम् । ब्रह्मव्याहृतिसंयुक्तं गायत्र्या चाभिमान्त्रितम् । तेन दहन्ति
ते दैत्या वज्रयुतेन वारिणा ॥ Similar verses occur in लघुहारीत IV (Jiv. part I.
p. 183), बृहत्पराशर p. 64, बृहद्गीतम् p. 560.

Saṁdhyopāsana. Mānava gr. (I. 2. 1-5) refers only to the *arghya* offering to the sun and *japa* of Gāyatrī. It is in the Baud. Dh. S. II. 4 that we find an elaboration of saṁdhyopāsana into various components such as ācamana, mārjana, japa of Gāyatrī and upasthāna (worship) of Mitra and Varuṇa (respectively in the morning and evening with only two verses in each case).⁷⁴⁸ Modern writers went on adding details e. g. it is now the practice in the Deccan to repeat the 24 names of Viṣṇu at the very beginning of the saṁdhyopāsana, but this is hardly anywhere prescribed by any smṛti or early commentator. Similarly elaborate rules are laid down about mystic *nyāsa*s with the sixteen verses of the Puruṣasūkta (vide Aparārka p. 140), of the nyāsa of the Nārāyaṇamantra of 25 letters on 25 parts of the body (Vṛddha-Hārta VI. 16-19) and of the letters of the Gāyatrī Brhatparāśara chap. V. p. 83). In modern times ācamana is performed with the three names of Viṣṇu, viz. Keśava, Nārāyaṇa and Mādhava in the form 'om Keśavāya namaḥ.' The 24 names are given below.^{748a}

A few words on each of the principal components of *saṁdhyā* may be said here. Elaborate rules about ācamana are laid down in several smṛtis; vide Gaut. I. 35-40, Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 2-11 and 16. 1-16, Manu II. 58-62, Yāj. I. 18-21. Such rules must have been elaborated from very ancient times. The Tai. Br. (I. 5. 10) prescribes that one should not perform ācamana with water that is in a cleft of the earth. Āp. Dh. S. (1. 5. 15. 5) says the same thing.⁷⁴⁹ One should perform

748. वारुणीभ्यां रात्रिसुपतिष्ठते । इमं मे वरुण तत्त्वायामीति ह्यास्याम् । एवमेव प्रातः प्राङ्मुखस्तिष्ठत् ॥ मैत्रीभ्यामहरुपतिष्ठते मित्रस्य चर्षणीधृतो मित्रो जनान्यतयतीति ह्यास्याम् । बौ. ध. सू. II. 4. 11-14. The verses इमं मे वरुण and तत्त्वा यामी are respectively Rg. I. 25. 19 and I. 24. 11; and मित्रस्य चर्षणीधृतो and मित्रो जनान् are respectively Rg. III. 59. 6 and I. 1. 1. Gobhila-smṛti II. 11-12 prescribes the two verses 'udu tyam' (Rg. I. 50. 1 and in other Vedas also) and 'citram devānām' (Rg. I. 115. 1 and in other Vedas also) as the upasthāna in both saṁdhyās. In modern times the usages vary, many recite the whole of Rg. III. 59 in the morning adoration and Rg. I. 25. 1-10 (addressed to Varuṇa) in the evening. The Sm. C. (I. p. 139) says that the worship of the Sun should be done by the mantras from that śākha of the Veda to which one belongs.

748a. केशव, नारायण, माधव, गोविन्द, विष्णु, मधुसूदन, त्रिविक्रम, वामन. श्रीधर, हृषीकेश, पद्मनाभ, दामोदर, संकर्षण, वासुदेव, प्रद्युम्न, अनिरुद्ध, पुरुषोत्तम, अधोक्षज, नारासिंह, अच्युत, जनार्दन, उपेन्द्र, हरि, श्रीकृष्ण. They are enumerated in the अग्निपुराण chap. 48. Vide note 567 for the first twelve names.

749. तस्मात्प्रदरादुदकं नाचामेत् । ते. ब्रा. I. 5. 10; compare आप. ध. सू. I. 5. 15. 4-5. न वर्षधारात्वाचामेत् । न प्रदरोदके ।

ācamana in a sitting posture (and not standing nor bent) in a pure spot, facing the north or east, one should sip water thrice with water that is not hot and that is free from foam or bubbles, one should after sipping water wipe the lips twice (thrice according to Āp.) and should touch with the wet right hand one's eyes, ears, nose, heart and head. The water for ācamana should be as much as would penetrate (or reach) to the heart in the case of brāhmanas, to the throat in the case of kṣatriyas, to the palate in the case of vaiśyas; women and śūdras should sip on occasions of ācamana only once as much water as would reach the palate. Manu (II. 18) and Yāj. (I. 18) say that water should be sipped by the brāhmatīrtha (i. e. from the root of the thumb).⁷⁵⁰ The further elaborate rules laid down in such smṛtis as Gobhila gr. (I. 2. 5-6), Śaṅkhasmṛti 10 are not set out here. The occasions for ācamana are many. According to Gobhila⁷⁵¹ gr. I. 1. 2 one must do every grhya rite with yajñopavīta worn in the usual way and after ācamana. Haradatta on Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 1 says that ācamana is a subsidiary matter in all religious acts. There are several occasions when the sipping of water twice is necessary, the principal being before and after *bhojana* (meals); vide Gautama I. 40, Vas. 3. 38, Yāj. I. 196, Sm. C. I. p. 100, Madanapārijāta p. 57, Par. M. I. part 1. pp. 241-243. Both the Br. Up. (VI. 1. 14) and Chān. Up. V. 2. 2 refer to the practice of sipping water before and after *bhojana* and the Vedāntasūtra III. 3. 18 is based on these upaniṣad passages and says that water is looked upon as the garment of prāṇa.⁷⁵² Numerous occasions when ācamana is necessary are stated in Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 16. 15-16, Manu V. 138 and 145, Yāj. I. 196, Kūrmapurāṇa I. 2. 13. 1-8 &c.

750. The roots of the smallest finger, the index finger and of the thumb and the tips of the fingers of the hand are respectively called the प्राजापत्य (or काय), पित्र्य, ब्राह्म and दैव तीर्थसः. Vide Yāj. I. 19. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 62. 1-4, Vas. Dh. S. III. 64-68, Baud. Dh. I. 5. 14-18. As everywhere, there are differences here also. Vas. holds that pitrya is between the forefinger and the thumb, and that mānuṣa tīrtha is at the tips of the fingers. Others say that the roots of the four fingers constitute āraśa tīrtha (Baud. Dh. S. I. 5. 18).—Vaik I. 5. and Par. gr. pariśiṣṭa mention five tīrthas (the 5th being in the palm is called āgneya). Āgneya is also styled Saumya by others.

751. यज्ञोपवीतिना आचमन्तोदकेन कृत्यम् । गोभिलग्रन्थे I. 1. 2.

752. तद्विद्वंसः श्रोत्रिया अशिष्यन्त आचामन्त्यशित्वा चाचामन्ति एवमेव तदनमनसं कुर्वन्तो मन्थन्ते । बृह. वप. VI. 1. 14; तस्माद्वा एतदशिष्यन्तः पुरस्ताच्चोपरिष्ठाच्चाग्निः परिदधति लम्बुको ह वासो भवत्यनयो ह भवति । छान्दोग्य V. 2. 2.

Prāṇāyāma (restraint of breath) is defined by the Yoga-sūtra⁷⁵³ (II. 49) as the regulation of inhalation and exhalation of air. Gaut. I. 50 prescribes three prāṇāyāmas, each of which lasts for 15 mātrās (moras). Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 30 (= Vas. Dh. S. 25. 13 = Śaṅkhaśmṛti VII. 14) and Yāj. I. 23 say that the śīras of Gāyatrī, the three vyāhrtis each preceded by 'om' and the Gāyatrī verse are to be rehearsed mentally during the time of prāṇāyāma. According to Yoga-yājñavalkya, one should first revolve in the mind the seven vyāhrtis, each preceded by 'om,' then the Gāyatrī and then the śīras of Gāyatrī.⁷⁵⁴ Prāṇāyāma has three components, pūraka (inhaling the outside air), kumbhaka (keeping in the inhaled air i. e. neither taking in air nor giving it out) and recaka (exhaling air from the lungs). Manu VI. 70-71 highly praises the utility of prāṇāyāma in purifying the mind of sin.

Mārjana is performed by means of kuśa grass dipped in water kept in a vessel of copper or udumbara wood or earthenware and while doing so one is to repeat 'om,' the vyāhrtis, Gāyatrī and the three verses 'āpo hi ṣṭhā' (Rg. X. 9. 1-3). Baud. Dh. S. II. 4. 2 adds more Vedic mantras for mārjana.⁷⁵⁵ Mānava gr. I. 1. 24, Yāj. I. 22 and others prescribe mārjana only with the three verses 'āpo hi ṣṭhā' (Rg. X. 9. 1-3).

Aghamarṣana (driving out sin) consists in taking water in the right hand formed in the shape of a cow's ear, holding it near one's nose, breathing out from the nose on the water (with the idea of driving away sin from oneself) to the accompaniment of the three verses 'ṛtam ca' (Rg. X. 190. 1-3) and then casting the water away to one's left on the ground.

753. तस्मिन्सति (आसनजये सति) श्वासप्रश्वासयोर्योगतिविच्छेदः प्राणायामः । योगसूत्र II. 49.

754. धूर्ध्रुवःस्वर्महर्जनस्तपः सत्यं तथैव च । प्रत्योकारसमायुक्तस्तथा तत्सवितुर्वरेणम् । ओमोपाज्योतिरित्येव शिरः पश्चात्प्रयोजयेत् । त्रिरावर्तनयोगात् प्राणायामस्तु शब्दितः । योग-याज्ञवल्क्य quoted in स्मृतिचं. I. p. 141.

755. सुरभिमत्या अल्लङ्कामिर्वर्णीभिर्हिरण्यवर्णाभिः पावमानीभिर्व्यर्हतिभिरन्यैश्च पवित्रैरात्मानं मोक्षय प्रयतो भवति । बौ. ध. सू. II. 4. 2. सुरभिमती is the verse वृषिकार्ष्णो &c. (Rg. IV. 39. 6), अल्लङ्क verses are Rg. X. 9. 1-3, वर्णी verses are इमं मे वरुण (Rg. I. 25. 19), तत्त्वा यामि (Rg. I. 24. 11), अव ते हेळो (Rg. I. 24. 14) and यत्किंचिद् (Rg. VII. 89. 5). पावमान्यः are all verses like स्वादिष्टया सदिष्टया (Rg. IX. 1. 1) of the IX maṇḍala of the Rgveda or according to some Rg. IX. 67. 21-27. त्रिरसो मार्जनं कुर्यात्कुशैः सोदक-क्षिन्दुभिः । प्रणवो धूर्ध्रुवः स्वश्च सावित्री च तृतीयका । अद्भुतस्तुचश्चैव चतुर्थ इति मार्जनम् । गामिलस्मृतिः II. 4-5; अद्भुतस्तुच is ऋग्वेद X. 9. 1-3. The तै. ब्रा. III. 9. 7 has आपो हि ष्ठा मयोयुव इत्यङ्गिर्मार्जयन्ते । आपो वै सर्वा देवताः ।

*Arghya*⁷⁵⁶ (offering water out of respect to the sun) consists in taking water in one's joined hands, repeating the Gāyatrī verse over it and standing facing the sun and casting it up thrice. If a man cannot have water (being at the time of Saṁdhyā on a road or in jail &c.) he could use dust for water. The Tai. Ār. II. 2 says that a brāhmaṇa contemplating the rising and setting sun and doing obeisance to it by going from left to right attains all bliss, since this Āditya is *Brahma*.

As to *japa* of Gāyatrī, vide above under Sāvitrīyupadeśa (p. 304). There is an extensive literature about the greatness of the *japa* of Gāyatrī and of other holy vedic mantras which are passed over here and for which reference may be made to Aparārka pp. 46-48, Sm. C. I. pp. 143-152, Gr. R. pp. 241-250, Āhnikaprakāśa pp. 311-316. A few details will be given under āhnika.

As to *upasthāna* vide above (p. 315, note 748). According to Baud. the worship⁷⁵⁷ of the sun is done with the verses 'udvayam' (Rg. I. 50.10), 'Udu tyam' (Rg. I. 50.1), 'citram' (Rg. I. 115.1), 'tac-cakṣur' (Rg. VII. 66. 16), 'ya udagāt' (Tai. Ār. IV. 42. 5). Manu II. 103 prescribes that he who does not perform the Saṁdhyopāsana in the morning and evening should be excluded from all actions meant for the benefit or honour of dvijas. Gobhila⁷⁵⁸ smṛti II. 1 says the same and adds that *brāhmaṇya* resides in the three saṁdhyās and that he who has no concern for saṁdhyopāsana is not a brāhmaṇa. Baud. Dh. S. II. 4. 20 calls upon the religious king to make brāhmaṇas, who do not engage in saṁdhyopāsana thrice a day, perform the work peculiar to śūdras. The Kūrma-purāṇa⁷⁵⁹ goes so far as to say that even if a person engages in other actions which are religious but gives up the performance of saṁdhyopāsana, in so doing he falls into numerous hells. Manu declares (II. 102) that sins committed at night through ignorance (or oversight) are removed by the performance of

756. उद्यन्तमस्तं यन्तमादित्यमभिधायन् कुर्वन् ब्राह्मणो विद्वान् सकलं भद्रमश्नुतेऽसावादित्यो ब्रह्मेति । तै. आ. II. 2.

757. अथादित्यमुपतिष्ठतोद्वयं तमसस्पति उद्वयं चित्रं तच्चक्षुर्देवहितं य उद्वगादिति । बौ. quoted in संस्काररत्नमाला p. 237 which adds एतदेव तैत्तिरीयैः स्वीकार्यम् । इतर-शास्त्रापेक्षया बौधायनोक्तस्याभ्यर्हितत्वात् ।

758. अतर्हः कर्मणां विमः संध्याहीनो यतः स्मृतः । गोभिलस्मृति II.1.; एतत्संध्यात्रयं प्रोक्तं ब्राह्मण्यं यत्र तिष्ठति । यस्य नास्त्याहुरस्तत्र न स ब्राह्मण उच्यते ॥ गोभिलस्मृति II. 15-16; बौ. ध. सू. II.4. 19 is similar 'संध्यां नोपासते विमः कथं ते ब्राह्मणाः स्मृताः'. Vide note 741 above.

759. योऽन्यत्र कुरुते यस्तं धर्मकार्ये द्विजोत्तमः । विहाय संध्याप्रणतिं स चाति नरकायुतम् ॥ कूर्मपुराण quoted in स्मृतिचं I. p. 139.

morning sāṁdhyā and the sins committed in the day are removed by the evening sāṁdhyā. Baud. Dh. S. II. 4. 25-28, Yāj. III. 307 are to the same effect. When a person is impure owing to mourning or birth in the family, he is to perform sāṁdhyā only up to arghya to the sun but not *japa* nor *upasthāna*.

In modern times the sāṁdhyopāsana has become a lengthy business by the addition of materials from purāṇas and the *tantras*. But as observed by the Samskāraratnamālā rituals like nyāsa are non-Vedic⁷⁶⁰ and many do not perform them. For various *nyāsas* and *mudrās* (postures of the fingers, hands etc.) one may consult the Smṛti-muktāphala (āhnika pp. 328-333), Sm. C. I. pp. 146-148.⁷⁶¹

Nyāsa means 'mentally invoking god and holy texts to come to occupy certain parts of the body to render it a pure and fit receptacle for worship and contemplation.' The sixteen verses of the Puruṣasūkta (Rg. X. 90) are respectively invoked to reside in the left and right hands, the left foot, the right foot, the left and right knees, the left and right sides, the navel, the heart, the throat, the left and right arms, the mouth, the eyes and the head (vide Aparārka p. 140). The Bhāgavata (VI. 8. 4-5) recommends that one should perform *nyāsa* on the hands and limbs of one's own body with the two mantras of Nārāyaṇa and thus make Nārāyaṇa one's armour when some danger arises and that one should perform *nyāsa* with 'om' and other syllables on one's feet, knees, thighs, belly, heart, chest, mouth and head.⁷⁶² The Sm. C. I. p. 144 quotes verses from Vyāsa and Brahmā as to the *nyāsa* of the letters of the Gāyatrī with 'om' and 'namaḥ' on the several parts of the

760. एषोऽङ्गन्यासः । एतमेके नेच्छन्ति । सह विधिरवैदिक इति । संस्काररत्नमाला p. 229.

761. For the influence of tantra rites on the smṛtis and Indian practice, the following may be consulted : The Introduction to Sādhana-mālā, vol. 2 (Gaikwad's Oriental Series), Indian Historical Quarterly vol. 6. p. 114, vol. 9. p. 678, vol. 10 pp. 486-492, Sylvain Levi's Introduction to 'Sanskrit texts from Bali', Modern Review for August 1934 pp. 150-156.

762. कृतस्वाङ्गकन्यासो मन्त्राभ्यां वाग्यतः शुचिः । नारायणमयं वर्म सेनहेन्द्रय आगते ॥ पादयोर्जातुनोरुर्वोरुदरे हृदयोरसि । मुखे शिरस्यास्तुपूर्या ओंकारादीनि विन्यसेत् ॥ भागवत VI. 8. 4-5. अङ्गुष्ठे तु गोविन्दं तर्जनीं तु महीधरम् । मध्यमायां हृषीकेशमनामिक्यां त्रिविक्रमम् ॥ कनिष्ठिक्यां न्यसेद्विष्णुं करमध्ये तु माधवम् । एवं च करविन्यासं सर्वपापप्रणाशनम् ॥. Vide स्मृतिस्तु. (आह्निक p. 331) for these latter verses.

body. Vṛddha-Hārīta VI. 16-19 speaks of the nyāsa of the twenty-five letters of the mantra about Nārāyaṇa on the twenty-five parts of the body. The Nityācārapaddhati (pp. 578-579) describes the nyāsa of the letters of the alphabet (51 in all) from 'Om Keśavāya namaḥ' to 'kṣam Nṛsiṃhāya namaḥ.' One well-known mode is to assign Govinda, Mahidhara, Hṛṣikeśa, Trivikrama, Viṣṇu, Mādhava respectively on the tips of the thumb, the index finger, the middle finger, the ring-finger, the small finger and the middle of the palm. Manu II. 60 enjoining the touching of the limbs and head with water appears to contain the germ of this practice of nyāsa.

The Sm. C. I. (pp. 146-148) quotes long passages about the *mudrās* (hand poses) to be made in the saṁdhyā adoration. The Saṁgraha⁷⁶³ quoted in the Pūjāprakāśa (p. 123) states that the *mudrās* are to be made in worship, at the time of japa, dhyāna (contemplation) and when starting on kāmya rites (performed for securing some desired object) and that they tend to bring the deity worshipped near to the worshipper. The names and number of *mudrās* differ considerably. For example, the Sm. C. and Smṛ. Mu. (āhnika pp. 331-332) quote passages defining the following *mudrās* viz. sammukha, saṁputa, vitata, vistṛṇa, dvimukha, trimukha, adhomukha, vyāpakāñjalika, yama-pāśa, grathita, sammukhonmukha, vilamba, muṣṭika, mīna, kūrma, varāha, siṃhākṛānta, mahākṛānta, mudgara and pallava. The Nityācārapaddhati p. 533 derives the word *mudrā* from 'mud' (joy) and the root 'rā' (to give) or 'drāvay' (causal of dru, to put to flight) and says that "mudrā" is so called because it gives delight to the gods and also puts to flight asuras (evil beings). That work and the Pūjā-prakāśa (pp. 123-126) give the names of *mudrās*. They are āvāhanī, stbāpīnī, saṁnidhāpanī, saṁrodhinī, prasādamudrā, avagun-ṭhana-mudrā, sammukha, prārthana, śaṅkha, cakṛa, gadā, abja, (or padma), musala, khaḍga, dhanuḥ, bāṇa, nārāca, kumbha, vighna (for Vighneśvara), saura, pustaka, lakṣmī, saptajihva (for Agni Vaiśvānara), durgā, namaskāra (bringing together both hands from the wrist to the tips of the fingers), añjali, saṁhāra (in all 32). The Nityācārapaddhati (p. 536) says that śaṅkha, cakṛa, gadā, padma, musala, khaḍga, śrīvatsa and kaustubha are the eight *mudrās* of Viṣṇu. The Sm. C. quotes a

763. संग्रहे । अर्चने जपकाले तु ध्याने काम्ये च कर्मणि । तत्तन्मुद्राः प्रयोक्तव्या देवतासन्निधापकाः ॥ पूजाप्रकाश p. 123.

work called⁷⁶⁴ *Mahāsāṃhitā* that the mudrās are not to be performed in the presence of a crowd and if so performed the deities become angry and the mudrās become fruitless. The *Śārādātīlaka* (23. 106) states that all deities are gladdened by the mudrās and in verses 107-114 describes the following mudrās, viz. *āvāhanī*, *sthāpanī*, *saṃnidhāpanī*, *saṃroddhī*, *sammukha*, *sakala*, *avagunṭhana*, *dhenu*, *mahāmudrā*. The *Ācāra-dinakara* of Vardhamāna-sūri composed in *saṃvat* 1468 (1411-12 A. D.) for Jainas enumerates 42 mudrās and defines them (1923, part II. pp. 385-386).

The influence of these mudrās spread outside India and they are still practised in the island of Bali. Miss Tyra de Kleen has brought out a very interesting book on the 'mudrās (the hand poses) practised by Buddhist and Śaiva priests' (called *pedandas*) in Bali, with 60 full page drawings (1924, New York).

Study of the Veda:—A detailed examination of the educational system from ancient times onwards, together with its methods, courses of study and kindred topics will require a volume by itself. The works⁷⁶⁵ mentioned in the note below may be read for that purpose. Here a few salient features alone can be set out.

The pivot of the whole educational system of ancient India was the teacher (variously called *ācārya*, *guru*, *upādhyāya*). The instruction was oral. Rg. VII. 103. 5 (speaking of frogs) says 'when one of these frogs follows another in making noise just as a learner repeats the words of the teacher'. Vide the quotations from the *Atharvaveda* and the *Sat. Br.* cited above (f. n. 622 and 625). In the beginning the father alone may have taught his son. The story narrated in the *Br. Up. V. 2. 1* and the story of *Śvetaketu Āruṇeya* who was taught by his father everything he knew (*Br. Up. VI. 2. 1* and 4) illustrate this (vide f. n. 633). But even from very ancient times the practice

764. अत्र महासंहितोक्तो विशेषः । न जातु दर्शयेन्मुद्रा महाजनसमागते । क्षुभन्ति देवतास्तस्य विफलं च कृतं भवेत् ॥ स्मृतित्वं I. p. 148.

765. Vide Rev. F. E. Keay's 'Ancient Indian Education' (1918), Dr. A. S. Altekar's 'Education in Ancient India' (1934), S. K. Das on 'Educational system of the ancient Hindus' (1930) and Dr. S. C. Sarkar's 'Educational ideas and institutions in ancient India' (1928). The last work is based entirely on the *Atharvaveda* and the *Rāmāyaṇa*.

of sending ⁷⁶⁶ boys to learn from an ācārya had become usual. The Chān. Up. itself says in one passage (VI. 1) that Śvetaketuś Āruṇeya was placed by his father for twelve years as a student with a teacher. The same upaniṣad (III. 11. 5) says that the father should impart the 'madhuvidyā' to his eldest son or to a worthy pupil only. As the boy stayed with the teacher in the latter's house and all instruction was oral, the teacher's position assumed the greatest importance. Satyakāma Jābāla ⁷⁶⁷ says to his teacher (in Chān. IV. 9. 3) 'I have heard from persons like your revered self that knowledge when learnt from an ācārya reaches the highest excellence'. The Śvetāśvataropaniṣad ⁷⁶⁸ (VI. 23) places the guru almost on a level with God and inculcates the highest devotion to him. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 6. 13 says 'the pupil should wait upon the ācārya as if he were ⁷⁶⁹ God.' The story of Ekalavya, whom Droṇa refused to take as a pupil because he was a niṣāda and who by worshipping the image of Droṇa is alleged to have become an adept in archery, illustrates two points viz. the prevailing notion of the greatness of a guru and the necessity of single-minded devotion to him for attaining proficiency (vide Ādiparva 132 for the story and also Droṇaparva 181. 17). The Mahābhārata condemns him who learns the Vedas at home and says that Raiibhya became superior to Yavakṛita ⁷⁷⁰ because the former learnt from a *guru*, while the other did not do so. In Manu and other smṛtis there is some divergence about the

766. अनुशिष्यो न्यसि पितृव्योमिति होवाच । बृह. उ. VI. 2. 1; यद्दं किंच वेद सर्वमहं तत्तुभ्यमवोचम् । बृह. उ. VI. 2. 4; कुमारानु त्वाशिष्यपितृव्येति । छान्दोग्य V. 3. 1. मेधा० on मनु III. 3. says 'यस्य पिता विद्यते स एव तस्याचार्यः । अभावे पितुरशक्तौ बान्यस्याधिकारः । आचार्यान्तरोपादानेन पितुरधिकारो निवर्तत एव ।'. मनु II. 142 and याज्ञ I. 34 show that guru primarily means the father; but मनु II. 69 and 149 show that the word guru was also applied to the ācārya and upādhyāya. Vide मिता. on या. III. 259.

767. श्रुतं ह्येव मे भगवद्ब्रह्मस्य आचार्यद्विव विद्या विदिता साधिष्ठं प्रापयतीति छान्दोग्य IV. 9. 3; आचार्यवान्पुरुषो वेद । छान्दोग्य VI. 14. 2; vide कठोप. II. 9, मुण्डकोप. I. 2. 3 for the importance of guru in brahma-vidyā. Also छान्दोग्य III. 11. 5 'इदं वा तज्ज्येष्ठाय पुत्राय पिता ब्रह्म प्रब्रूयात्प्रणय्याय बान्तेवासिने ।'.

768. यस्य देवे परा भक्तिर्यथा देवे तथा गुरौ । तस्यैते कथिताः ह्यर्थाः प्रकाशन्ते महात्मनः ॥ श्वेताश्व. उप. VI. 23.

769. देवमिवाचार्यं सुपासीत । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 6. 13.

770. Vide अनुशासनपर्व 36. 15 'अपि च ज्ञानसंपन्नः सर्वान् वेदान् पितुर्युहे । श्रावमान इवाधीयाद् याम्य इत्येव तं विदुः ॥'; वनपर्व 138. 25-26 'ऋते गुरुमधीता हि सुखं वेदास्त्वया पुरा । अनेन तु गुरुत्वं दुःखाद् तोषयित्वात्मकमेवा । कालेन महता क्लेशाद् ब्रह्माधिगतसुत्तमम् ॥

greatness of the ācārya. Manu II. 146 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 30. 44) says that both the father (*janaka*) and the teacher are called father (*pitā*) but the father (i. e. ācārya) who imparts the sacred Veda is superior to the father that gives (physical) birth, since the birth in spiritual learning is for a brāhmaṇa of eternal benefit here and hereafter. But in II. 145 Manu⁷⁷¹ says that an ācārya is ten times superior to an upādhyāya, the father is superior to a hundred ācāryas, while the mother is thousand-fold superior to the father. Gaut. II. 56 declares that the ācārya is the highest among all *gurus* while according to some the mother is the highest. Yāj. I. 35 also places the mother higher than the ācārya. Gaut. I. 10-11, Vas. Dh. S. III. 21, Manu II. 140, Yāj. I. 34 define⁷⁷² the ācārya as one who performs the upanayana of the student and imparts the whole Veda to him. The Nirukta⁷⁷³ (I. 4) derives ācārya as follows: 'he makes the student understand the proper course of conduct, or he collects wealth (i. e. fee) from the student (or gathers together the meanings of words), or he increases the intelligence (of the student)'. Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 14 says 'The ācārya is so called since the student gathers his duties from him.' Manu II. 69 says that the teacher, after performing upanayana, teaches his pupil the rules about śauca (bodily purity), ācāra (rules of conduct in every day life), the offering (of fuel-stick) in fire and saṁdhyā adoration. Yāj. I. 15 is to the same effect. Though the words *ācārya*, *guru*⁷⁷⁴ and *upādhyāya* are very often used as synonyms, ancient writers made a distinction between them. According to Manu II. 141 and 142, an upādhyāya is one who teaches to a student a portion of the Veda or the Vedāṅgas⁷⁷⁵ (subsidiary lores of the

771. वसिष्ठ 13. 48 quotes मनु II. 145 (but the 3rd पाद in वसिष्ठ is पितुर्देवज्ञातं माता); शान्तिपर्व (108. 18-19) says 'गुरुर्मसीयान् पितृतो मातृत्वश्चेति मे मतिः । उभो हि मातापितरौ जन्मन्येवोपयुज्यतः । आचार्यशिष्टा या जातिः सा दिव्या सा जगामरा ॥' ; तद्यस्मात्स आचार्यः । वेदाहवचनञ्च । गौ. I. 10-11.

772. स गुरुर्धः क्रियाः कृत्वा वेदमस्मै प्रयच्छति । उपनीय ददद्देदमाचार्यः स उदाहृतः ॥ या. I. 34.

773. आचार्यः कस्मादाचारं ग्राहयत्याचिनोत्यर्थानाचिनोति बुद्धिमिति वा । निरुक्त I. 4; यस्माद्भर्मानाचिनोति स आचार्यः । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 1. 14; vide वायुपुराण vol. I. 59. 30.

774. Vide मित्ता on या III. 259 for a discussion of the meaning of the word *guru*.

775. The वेदाङ्गs have been six from very ancient times, viz. शिक्षा (phonetics), कल्प (ritual of solemn Vedic and domestic sacrifices), व्याकरण (grammar), निरुक्त (etymology), छन्दः or छन्दोविचिन्ति (metrics), ज्योतिष (astronomy). The मुण्डकोपनिषद् I. 1. 5 names these six; आप. ध. सू. II. 8. 8. 10-11 षडङ्गो वेदः । छन्दः कल्पो व्याकरणं ज्योतिषं निरुक्तं शिक्षा छन्दोविचिन्तिरिति ।

Veda) as a means of his own livelihood and a *guru* is one who performs the *saṁskāras* and who maintains the child. This latter definition shows that *guru* means the father here. Vas. Dh. S. (III. 22-23), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 29. 2, and Yāj. I. 35 define *upādhyāya* in the same way as Manu. According to Yāj. I. 34 the *guru* is one who performs the *saṁskāras* and imparts the Veda. This corroborates the statement made above that originally the father himself taught the Veda to his son. The word *guru* is often used in the sense of any elderly person, male or female, who is entitled to respect. Viṣṇu Dh. ⁷⁷⁶ S. (32. 1-2) says that the father, the mother and the *ācārya* are the three highest *gurus* of a person and Manu II. 227-237 contain the most sublime glorification of these three. Devala ⁷⁷⁷ says that 'among *gurus* five deserve special honour, viz. father, mother, *ācārya*, eldest brother and husband (in the case of women)'. Manu (II. 149) says that whoever confers on another the benefit of knowledge, whether great or small, is the latter's *guru*.

A great deal is said about the qualifications of the *ācārya* who is to perform the *upanayana* of a person and to teach him the Veda. Āp. Dh. S. ⁷⁷⁸ I. 1. 1. 11 refers to a Brāhmaṇa text to the effect 'he whom a teacher devoid of learning initiates enters from darkness into darkness and he also (i. e. an *ācārya*) who is himself unlearned (enters into darkness).' Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 1. 12-13) further provides that one should desire a performer of one's *upanayana* who is endowed with learning and whose family is hereditarily learned and who is serene in mind and that one should study Vedic lore under him up to the end (of *brahmacarya*) as long as the teacher does not fall off from the path of *dharma*. Vyāsa (quoted in Sam. P. p. 408) says ⁷⁷⁹ that the *ācārya* should be a brāhmaṇa who is solely

776. त्रयः पुरुषस्यातिशुर्वो भवन्ति । पिता माताचार्यश्च । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 32. 1-2 ; मनु II. 225-232 are the same as मत्स्यपुराण 211. 20-27 ; मनु 230, 231, 234 are the same as शान्तिपर्व 108. 6, 7, 12 ; मनु 11. 230, 233, 234 = विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 31. 7, 9, 10.

777. गुरुणा मपि सर्वेषां पूज्याः पञ्च विशेषतः । यो भावयति या सृते येन विद्योपदिश्यते ॥ ज्येष्ठो भ्राता च भर्ता च पञ्चैते श्रुतः स्मृताः । तेषामाद्यास्तत्र श्रेष्ठास्तेषां माता सुपूजिता ॥ देवल in स्मृतिच- I. p. 35 ; वनपर्व (214. 28-29) speaks of five *gurus*, but they are पिता, माता, अग्नि, आत्मा and गुरु. Vide अपरार्क pp. 398-401 for a long quotation from नरिन्दुराण on the greatness of *guru*.

778. तमसो वा एष तमः प्रविशति यमविद्वानुपनयते यश्चाविद्वानिति हि ब्राह्मणम् । तस्मिन्नाभिजनविद्यासमुद्देन समाहितं संस्कर्तारमीक्षेत् । तस्मिन्श्चैव विद्याकर्मान्तमविप्रतिपन्ने धर्मेभ्यः । आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 1. 11-13.

779. वेदैकनिष्ठं धर्मज्ञं कुलीनं ओत्रिषं ह्युचिम् । स्वशाखाज्ञमनालस्यं विप्रं कर्तारमीक्षितम् ॥ व्यास in सं. प्र. p. 408.

devoted to the Veda, who knows dharma, is born of a good family, who is pure, is a *śrotriya* that has studied his Vedic śākhā and who is not lazy. *Śrotriya* has been defined above (f. n. 290). Āp. Dh. S. II. 3. 6. 4 and Baud. gr. I. 7. 3 define a *śrotriya* as one who has studied one śākhā of a Veda. Vide *Vāyupurāṇa* vol. I. 59. 29 also.⁷⁸⁰ The *ācārya* in *upanayana* must be a *brāhmaṇa*; as to the study of veda one should ordinarily learn the Veda from a *brāhmaṇa* teacher; in times of difficulty (i. e. when a *brāhmaṇa* is not available) one may learn the Veda from a *kṣatriya* or *vaiśya* teacher; but in such circumstances the only service that a *brāhmaṇa* student rendered to the *guru* would be following after the non-*brāhmaṇa* teacher; he had not to render bodily service (such as shampooing or washing the feet &c.). Vide Āp. Dh. S. II. 2. 4. 25-28 (quoted above in note 229), Gaut. 7. 1-3, Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 40-42, Manu II. 241. Manu II. 238 allows even a *brāhmaṇa* to learn śubhā vidyā (visibly beneficial knowledge) even from a *śūdra*. *Śāntiparva* 165. 31 does the same.⁷⁸¹ The Mit. on Yāj. I. 118 remarks that a *kṣatriya* or *vaiśya* should teach a *brāhmaṇa* only when urged by him and not at his sweet will. *Aparārka* (p. 160) says that Manu II. 241 allows only teaching to a *kṣatriya*, but does not allow him to make it a means of his livelihood.⁷⁸²

We saw above (p. 321) that the instruction was entirely oral. The first thing that was taught to the boy was the *pranava* and the *vyāhrtis* and the *Gāyatrī*. Then the boy was to be taught other parts of the Veda. It is desirable to set out briefly the method of teaching the Veda followed in ancient times. The Śāp. gr. (IV. 8) describes the method as follows: the teacher sits facing the east or north, while the other (i. e. the student) sits to his right facing the north or two students may sit in that way; but if there are more than two they should sit as the available space will allow.⁷⁸³ The student should not sit on a high seat

780. धर्मेण वेदानामेकैकं शास्त्रमधीत्य श्रोत्रियो भवति। आप. ध. सू. II. 3. 6. 4; एकां शास्त्रमधीत्य श्रोत्रियः। बौ. गृ. I. 7. 3; वृद्धा ह्यलोलुपाश्चैव आत्मवन्तो ह्यदम्भकाः। सभ्यग्विनीता ऋजवस्तानाचार्यान् प्रचक्षते ॥ वायुपुराण vol. I. 59. 29.

781. अद्धधानः शुभां विद्यां हीनादपि समाण्डयात्। सुवर्णमपि चाभेद्यादाद्वीता-विचारयन् ॥ शान्तिपर्व 165. 31.

782. अध्यापनं तु क्षत्रियवैश्ययोर्ब्राह्मणधेरितयोर्भवति न स्वेच्छया। मिता० on या. I. 118; तद्ध्यापनमात्रकर्तृत्वमब्राह्मणस्याभ्यनुजानाति न तु वृत्तित्वमपि। अपरार्क p. 160.

783. Compare आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 6. 24-25 एकाध्यायी दक्षिणं बाहुं प्रतुपसीदेत्। यथावकाशं बद्धः। Vide also मनु II. 193.

before the teacher nor on the same seat with him; he should not stretch out his feet, nor should he sit seizing his knees with his arm, nor should he lean against a support, nor should he place his feet on his lap nor should he hold his feet like an axe. After the student utters 'Recite, Sir,'⁷⁸⁴ the teacher should urge him to pronounce 'om'; the other (i. e. the student) should reply 'om'. Thereafter he (the student) should recite continuously. After reciting he should clasp the teacher's feet and say 'we have finished, Sir' and go away to his business. Some teachers say that the teacher should say 'Leave, let us stop'. In the *Rk Prātisākhya*,⁷⁸⁵ 15th paṭala, there is a description of the method of teaching the Veda, which closely agrees with the above quotation from the *Śān. gr.* It adds that the teacher may also sit facing the north-east. When the teacher recites two words or more, the first pupil (to the right of the teacher) repeats the first of the two or more words and the other pupils repeat the rest afterwards. The teacher recites one word if it is a compound, two words if they are un-compounded; the teacher also clearly explains how to recite the words if there is any difficulty; in this way the whole *prāśna* is finished and all the pupils repeat again the whole of it. A *prāśna* generally has three mantras and each *adhyāya* has about sixty *prāśnas*. Manu (II. 70-74) also prescribes certain rules: the student should sip water (*ācamana*) when about to begin Vedic study, should face the north, should fold both hands⁷⁸⁶ together (and place them on his knee), should wear light (pure) clothes, should at the beginning and end of Vedic study clasp the feet of the teacher with crossed hands

784. According to the com. नारायण on *Śān. gr.* II. 5. 10-11 (S. B. E. vol. 29 p. 67 f. n.) the words 'अधीहि भोः' are uttered by the teacher. But this does not seem to be correct. In तै. उ. III. 1 we read 'भृगुर्वै वारुणिः । वरुणं पितरसुपससार । अधीहि भगवो ब्रह्मेति ।' and in छान्दोग्य VII. 1. 1 we have 'अधीहि भगव इति होपससाद् सनत्कुमारं नारदः'. The ऋक्प्रतिशाख्य supports the above translation.

785. अभिक्रान्ते द्वैपदे वाधिके वा पूर्वं पदं प्रथमः प्राह शिष्यः । ... गुरुः शिष्यस्य पदमाह मुखं समासश्चेदसमासो यदि द्वे । एतेन कल्पेन समाप्य प्रश्ने प्रत्याम्नाऽनुस्तपुनरेव सर्वे ॥. ऋक्प्रतिशाख्य, 15th पटल. Vide Max Muller's History of A. S. L. p. 503 ff. for further details.

786. ब्रह्माञ्जलि is explained differently from Manu by आपस्तम्बस्मृति (in verse) quoted in सं. म. p. 524 viz. the left hand should be turned upwards, the right hand should be placed on it with the palm turned downwards, and the fingers of the two hands should firmly hold the backs of the hands. संवत् quoted in स्मृतिच. (I. p. 51) reads 'हस्तौ तु संहतौ कार्यौ जाड्यासुपरि स्थितौ ॥'

and should touch the right foot of the teacher with his own right hand and left foot with the left hand, should repeat 'om' at the beginning and at the end of Vedic study. The teacher should say to the pupil 'repeat' and should stop from teaching with the words 'let there be a pause'. Gaut. (I. 49-58) gives similar rules. The Gopatha Br. I. 31 uses the expression 'sarve vedā mukhato gṛhitāḥ', which is current even in modern times (it means all Vedas were committed to memory by word of mouth).

The study of the Veda was the first duty of every twice-born person (dvijāti). Vedic Literature had grown to vast proportions even in the times of the Tai. Br. (III. 10. 11), as the story of Indra and Bharadvāja cited above (p. 271) shows. The ideal was set up by Manu II. 165, viz. that the whole Veda together with secret doctrines (Upaniṣads) was to be learnt by every dvijāti. The Śat. Br. XI. 5. 7 contains a eulogy of Veda study (svādhyāya) and the injunction 'svādhyāyosdhyetavyaḥ' (one must study the Veda) occurs there very frequently. The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 4. 12. 1 and 3) quotes⁷⁸⁷ the Tai. Ā. II. 14. 3 that the study of the Veda (svādhyāya) is austerities and also the Śat. Br. XI. 5. 6. 8. The Mahābhāṣya (vol. I. p. 1) quotes a Vedic text 'a brāhmaṇa should study and understand without any purpose (or desire of reward) dharma and the Veda with its six āṅgas.'⁷⁸⁸ The Mahābhārata says that a brāhmaṇa may be deemed to have completely accomplished his duty by the study of the Veda.⁷⁸⁹ Yāj. I. 40 says that it is Veda alone that confers the highest bliss upon dvijātis by enabling them to understand and perform sacrifices, austerities and auspicious acts (like saṃskāras). The Mahābhāṣya (vol. I. p. 9) contains the traditional extent of the four Vedas, viz. that there were 101 śākhās of the Yajurveda, 1000 of the Sāmaveda, 21 of the Rgveda and nine of the Atharvaveda.⁷⁹⁰ Concessions had to be

787. तपः स्वाध्याय इति ब्राह्मणम् । ... अथापि वाजसनेयिब्राह्मणम् । ब्राह्मणज्ञो ह वा एष यत्स्वाध्यायः । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 12. 1 and 3; compare मनु II. 166 वेदाभ्यासो हि विमत्स्य तपः परमिहोच्यते ॥ ; दृक् II. 33 is to the same effect; अधीयत इत्यध्यायः वेदः । स्वस्याध्यायः स्वाध्यायः स्वपरंपरागता शास्त्रेत्यर्थः । सं. p. 504.

788. ब्राह्मणेन निष्कारणो धर्मः षडङ्गो वेदोध्येयो ज्ञेय इति । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 1. मेधाः on मनु III. 1 explains निष्कारण as कारणं प्रयोजनमनुद्दिश्य नित्यकर्मवत् कर्तव्यम् ।'

789. परिनिष्ठितकार्यो हि स्वाध्यायेन द्विजो भवेत् । कुर्यादप्यस्य वा कुर्यान्मैत्रो ब्राह्मण उच्यते ॥ शान्तिपर्व 239. 13; the latter half is मनु II. 87.

790. एकशतमध्वर्युशास्त्राः सहस्रवर्त्ता सामवेद एकविंशतिधा ब्राह्मणं नवधार्तर्यणो वेदः । महाभाष्य I. p. 9.

made to the shortness of human life and the weakness of the human mind. Therefore Gaut. II. 51, Vas. Dh. S. VII. 3, Manu III. 2, Yāj. I. 52 and others allowed a person to study only one Veda. After a man studied his own Veda, he could if so minded study another śākhā of another Veda or other Vedas. The rule laid down by many smṛtis is that one should study the śākhā of the Veda which his ancestors studied and should perform religious rites with mantras derived from that śākhā. Vide Medhātithi on Manu III. 2 and Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 51.⁷⁹¹ That person who does not study a Vedic Śākhā studied by his ancestors and studies another śākhā altogether was called 'śākhāraṇḍa'. Whatever religious rites a man did with the procedure and mantras of another śākhā giving up his own śākhā becomes fruitless. But an exception was made to the effect that if some⁷⁹² religious rite was omitted in one's śākhā, but was dealt with in another śākhā and was not opposed to the teaching of one's śākhā, it may be performed as in the case of Agnihotra (which is not dealt with in all śākhās, but is to be performed by all).

Teachers mostly confined themselves to one place. But we find that even in ancient times there were teachers who wandered from one country to another. In the Kauṣ. Br. Up. IV. 1 we find that the famous Bālāki Gārgya moved about in the countries of Uśinara, Matsya, Kuru-Pāñcāla and Kāśivideha. In the Br. Up. III. 3. 1 Bhujyu Lāhyāyani tells Yājñavalkya that he and others wandered about in the country of Madra for study. Students generally stuck to one teacher; but it appears that they sometimes flocked to renowned teachers as waters flow down a slope⁷⁹³ (Tai. Up. I. 4. 3). There were also students who wandered from teacher to teacher and were

791. पित्राद्युल्लयः पूर्वे संस्कृताः शास्त्रया यया । सा स्वशास्त्रेति विज्ञेया तथा कर्माणि कारयेत् ॥ quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 49. या एव पित्रादिभिः शास्त्रा अधीता सा न त्याज्येति । मेधा० on मनु III. 2; वेदमिति चैकवचनं शास्त्रान्तराध्ययनव्यावृत्त्यर्थम् । विश्वरूप on या. I. 57. हित्वा स्वस्य द्विजो वेदं यस्त्वधीति परस्य तु । शास्त्रारण्डः स विज्ञेयः सर्वकर्म-बहिष्कृतः ॥ लघुश्वलायन 24. 19; हरदत्त on गौतम IX. 53 quotes a verse which extends the rule to giving up one's सूत्र.

792. Vide गोभिलस्मृति I. 34-35 quoted by Aparārka p. 8 and स्मृतिच० I. p. 50 and गृह्यसंग्रह (B. I. ed) II. 91 and 93 आत्मतन्त्रेषु यन्नोक्तं तत्कुर्वात्पारतन्त्रिकम् । विज्ञेयाः खलु सामान्या ये चोक्ता वेदवादिभिः ॥ यः स्वशास्त्रोक्त-स्तत्तुल्य परशास्त्रोक्तमाचरेत् । अग्रमाणसृष्टिं कृत्वा सोऽन्धे तमसि मज्जति ॥

793. यथापः प्रवता यन्ति यथा मासा अहर्जरम् । एवं सां ब्रह्मचारिणो धातरायन्तु सर्वतः ॥ तै. उ. I. 4. 3. अहर्जर means संवत्सर.

therefore derisively called 'tirthakāka (crows at a sacred place),' as the Mahābhāṣya states.⁷⁹⁴

As the study of the Veda was a duty enjoined upon a brāhmaṇa, so teaching Veda to another was a duty. Medhātithi on Manu (II. 113) quotes a Vedic text⁷⁹⁵ 'He who having studied the Veda would not teach one who requests him to do so would be one who destroys his own good acts (i.e. would lose the benefit thereof), would shut the door leading to happiness; therefore he should teach; it leads to great glory'. When Satyakāma Jābāla did not teach his pupil Upakosala anything for twelve years, though the latter served assiduously by attending to the sacred fires of the teacher, the teacher's wife remonstrated with the husband by saying 'this student has worked hard and attended the fires, may the fires not censure you and order you to teach him the vidyā he desires' (Chān. Up. IV. 10. 1-2). The Praśna Up.⁷⁹⁶ VI. 1 gives expression to the view that if a teacher keeps back anything he knows he dries up entirely. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 2-3 expressly prescribes 'the teacher whom a student asks for instruction should not refuse him, if he finds no defect in the student.'⁷⁹⁷ Āp. Dh. S. (I. 2. 8. 25-28) lays down certain excellent rules for the teacher 'the teacher, anxious for the welfare of the student as if he were his son, should attentively impart learning to the student without hiding anything from him in all matters of duty; nor should the teacher restrain the student for his own work in such a way as to cause obstacles in his study except in seasons of distress. A teacher becomes no teacher if he avoids giving instruction' (i.e. he may be abandoned). The Dronaparva (50. 21) says that a pupil comes only after the son according to the idea of those

794. यथा तीर्थे काका न चिरं स्थातारो भवन्ति एवं यो शुष्ककुलानि गत्वा न चिरं तिष्ठति स उच्यते तीर्थकाक इति । महाभाष्य I. p. 391 (on पा. II. 1. 41).

795. अध्यापनमप्यधीतवेदेनावश्यं कर्तव्यं न केवलं वृत्त्यर्थम् । तथा च श्रुतिः । यो हि विद्यामधीत्यार्थिने न ब्रूयात्स कार्यहा (कर्महा ?) स्यात् श्रेयसो द्वारमपावृणुयात् । अध्यापयेन्महदेतद्यशस्यम् । मेधा० on मनु II. 113. The portion 'यो हि...कर्महा स्यात्' is quoted as from वसिष्ठ by the स्मृतिच० I. p. 53.

796. 'तमहं कुमारमब्रुवं नाहमिमं वेदं यद्यहमिममवेदिषं कथं ते नावश्यमिति समूलो वा एव परिच्छुण्यति योऽतममभिवदति तस्माज्जार्हम्यद्वतं वक्तुम् । प्रश्नोप. VI. 1.

797. अध्ययनार्थेन यं चोदयेज्ज चैनं प्रत्याचक्षीत । न चास्मिन् दोषं पश्येत् । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 14. 2-3; संवत्सरोषिते शिष्ये गुरुर्ज्ञानमनिर्विशिन । हस्ते दुष्कृतं तस्य शिष्यस्य वसतो गुरोः ॥ कूर्मपुराण (उत्तरार्ध 14. 39) quoted in परा. मा. I. part 1. p. 146 and as यमा's in स्मृतिच० I. p. 53.

who know dharma. If a teacher does not teach a pupil anything even after his pupil has stayed with him for a year, the former receives all the sins of the pupil. A teacher⁷⁹⁸ who did not teach or was sinful was to be abandoned. Similarly a teacher, who became puffed up, did not care for what should or should not be done and took to a sinful path was to be abandoned.⁷⁹⁹ Āp. I. 1. 1. 13 lays down that a student must stay with his teacher who performs his upanayana till he completes his study, unless the teacher himself swerved from the path of dharma and became a sinner and (I. 2. 7. 26) that if the teacher cannot teach the subject, the pupil may resort to another teacher.

The smṛtis lay down rules about the qualifications of a student who deserves to be taught. In the Vidyāsūkta quoted in the Nirukta⁸⁰⁰ (II. 4) we see that the teacher was not to impart vidyā (knowledge) to one who was jealous (or who treated vidyā with contempt), was crooked and was not self-restrained and that learning was to be imparted to one who was pure, attentive, intelligent and endowed with brahmacharya (celibacy), who would never prove false (to his teacher) and who would guard what he learnt as a treasure. Manu (II. 109 and 112 also) says that ten persons deserve to be taught viz. the son of the teacher, a student who serves his guru, one who gives some knowledge in exchange, one who knows dharma or who is pure (in body and mind), who is truthful, who is able to study and retain it, who gives money (for teaching), who is well-disposed and who is one's near relative (agnate). Yāj. I. 28 mentions all these and adds that the student must be grateful, not inclined to hate or prove false to the teacher, healthy and not disposed to find fault. The student should always be dependent

798. षड्विमानं पुरुषो जह्याद्भिक्षां नावमिवाम्भसि । अपवत्कारमाचार्यमनघयिानमु-
त्विजम् ॥ उद्योगपर्व 33. 79 ; अज्ञानाद्वनस्यापनादृत्विगाचार्यो पतनीयसेवायां च हेयौ ॥
गौतम 21. 12 ; vide also वसिष्ठ 13. 50.

799. गुरोरप्यवलितस्य कार्यकार्यमजानतः । उत्पथप्रतिपन्नस्य परित्यागो विधीयते ॥
उद्योगपर्व 178. 48 ; शास्त्रपर्व 57. 7 ; 140. 48 &c. In some places the last पाद
is read as कार्यं भवति शासनम्. अपराकं p. 67 quotes it as यम's. Vide कूर्म-
पुराण (उत्तरार्ध 14. 25) for the same.

800. अस्वकायादृजवेऽयताय न मा ब्रूया वीर्यवती तथा स्याम् ॥ यमेव विद्याः शुद्धिम-
प्रसक्तं मेधाविनं ब्रह्मचर्योपपन्नम् । यस्ते न मुह्येत्कतमञ्चनाह तस्मै मा ब्रूया निधिपाय ब्रह्मन् ॥
निरुक्त II. 4 (= वसिष्ठ II. 8-9 = विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 29. 9-10). मनु (II. 114-115) is
very similar.

on and under the control of the teacher (as Āp. Dh. S.⁸⁰¹ I. 1. 2. 19 and Nārada say) and should stay with no one but the teacher. We saw above (p. 274) that from ancient times the student had to serve the teacher by tending his cattle (Chāndogya IV. 4. 5), had to beg for food and announce it to the teacher (ibid. IV. 3. 5) and to look after his sacred fires and to learn the Veda only in the time that would be left after doing work for the *guru*⁸⁰². Besides these, the rules concerning his conduct towards the teacher, the teacher's wife and son, concerning the method of salutation and showing respect, the food, drinks, and actions allowed or prohibited to students are too numerous to be set out in detail. A few important ones from Gautama, Āp. Dh. S., Manu II and Yāj I. 33 are stated below. Gaut. (II. 13, 14, 18, 19, 22, 23, 25) says that the student should speak the truth, bathe everyday, should not look at the sun; should avoid honey, flesh, perfumes, the wearing of flowers, sleeping by day, rubbing oil on the body, putting collyrium in the eyes, going in a cart,⁸⁰³ wearing shoes and holding an umbrella, love affairs, anger, covetousness, infatuation, vain discussions, playing on musical instruments, luxurious baths with hot water, meticulous cleansing of the teeth, ecstatic states of mind, dancing, singing, calumny of others, dangerous places, gazing at women or touching young women, gambling, serving a low person (or doing very low work), injury to animals, obscene or harsh talk, wine. Manu (II. 198 and 180-181) prescribes that he should not sleep on a cot and should observe complete celibacy, but if he suffers from night emissions he should bathe, worship the sun and repeat thrice the mantra 'punar mām' (Tai. Ār. I. 30). The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 2. 21-30, I. 1. 3. 11-24) contains similar rules of conduct. Āp. says (I. 1. 2. 28-30) that the student should not wash his limbs with hot water (generally), but he may do so if they are smeared with dirty and impure matter provided he does it out of the sight of the teacher and that he should not bathe in water in a sportive manner, but

801. न ब्रह्मचारिणो विद्यार्थस्य परोपवासोऽस्ति । आचार्याधीनः स्यादन्यत्र पतनी-
येभ्यः । हितकारी गुरोरमतिहोमयन्वाचा । आप. ध. I. 1. 2. 17, 19-20; 'अस्वतन्त्रः स्मृतः
शिष्य आचार्ये तु स्वतन्त्रता ।' नारद (ऋणादान verse 33).

802. छा. उप. VIII. 15. 1 'आचार्यकुलाद्वेदमधीत्य यथाविधानं गुरोः कर्माति-
शेषेणाभिसमावृत्य.'

803. उपानहौ छत्रे याचमिति वर्जयेत् । आप. I. 2. 7. 5, but when on a
journey the student may sit in a cart, if ordered by the teacher
'यानमुक्तोऽभ्यग्यन्वारोहेत्' आप. ध. I. 2, 8. 12.

should bathe in it motionless like a stick. Āp. not only prohibits for him sexual intercourse (I. 1. 2. 26) but ordains that he should speak with women only as much as is absolutely necessary. The student was not to⁸⁰⁴ laugh, but if he could not help laughing he should do so covering his face with his hands (says Āp.).

Gautama and Baud. Dh. S. (I. 2. 34 and 37) say that the student is to serve his teacher by following after him when he goes anywhere, he should help the teacher in his toilet and bath and should shampoo his body and take food left by him (ucchiṣṭa);⁸⁰⁵ he should be diligent in doing work that would be pleasing and beneficial to the teacher; he was to study when the teacher called him, he was not to cover his throat with a piece of cloth, or was not to sit in the presence of his teacher with his feet on his lap, was not to stretch his feet, he was not to clear loudly his throat, nor to laugh, yawn or crack the knuckles; he was when called by the teacher to reply at once leaving his seat or bed and was to approach the teacher even when he called from a distance; he should always occupy a seat lower than that of his teacher and should go to sleep after his teacher and rise before him (Gautama II. 20-21, 30-32). Manu II. 194-198 and Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 26 and I. 2. 6. 1-12 contain similar rules. Manu (II. 199) says that a pupil should

804. Vide Yāj. I. 33 which contains many of the above. Yāj. forbids the eating of ucchiṣṭa (leavings of food) of anybody (except the teacher). Manu (II. 177-179) practically contains the same rules as those of Gautama set out above. *Aśanasa-smṛiti* III. (ed. by Jiv. pp. 512-513) contains a long list of what the student should eschew. न स्मयेत् । यदि स्मयेतापि शुद्ध स्मयेदेति ब्राह्मणम् । आप. घ. सू. I. 2. 7. 7-8.

805. The word 'ucchiṣṭa' is used, as exhaustively pointed out by Medhātithi on Manu VI. 80, in several senses. It literally means 'what is left out.' The most usual senses are three, viz. (1) food left in the plate from which one has eaten, (2) food taken out in a vessel for serving to a person but not exhausted by being served in his plate, and (as applied to a person), (3) one who has not washed his hands and mouth after eating food (or as applied to a plate) the plate (not yet cleaned) from which one has taken his meal. Vide मनु IV. 211 for the 2nd meaning. Another meaning is: (4) one who has answered a call of nature and not yet performed the purificatory acts like *ścamana* is said to be ucchiṣṭa. Vide Manu IV. 142 (for this and the 3rd meaning) and V. 143 (for 3). Sometimes the word is used in its literal sense (vide Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 4. 2). Vide Manu V. 141 for another application of the word.

not mimic the gait, the manner of speech and the actions of the teacher. Manu (II. 200-201) calls upon the pupil to close his ears (with his hands or fingers) or to leave the place where somebody indulges in calumnies about the teacher or points out the faults in him, and states that if the pupil himself finds fault with his teacher or calumniates him, the pupil (in the next life) is born as an ass or a dog. Viṣṇu Dh. S.⁸⁰⁶ 28. 26 says the same.

Some rules are laid down as to how the brahmacārin is to deal with the hair on his head. Even the Rg. speaks of boys with several śikhās (topknot). Vide note 598 above. Gaut. I. 26 and Manu II. 219 say that a brahmacārin may either shave his entire head, or may allow all the hair to grow as matted or should keep only a tuft of hair on the head (and shave the rest).⁸⁰⁷ Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 2. 31-32, Vas. VII. 11 allow only two alternatives viz. growing all the hair or keeping a tuft of hair, while Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 41 says that a student may either shave the entire head or grow matted hair. One was not to untie one's śikhā, while on the public road.⁸⁰⁸

One of the rules for the student was that he was not to pronounce the name of his teacher even when the teacher was not present without prefixing or affixing an honorific addition (such as śrī, bhāṭṭa, ācārya). Gaut. ordains that the student should not speak of his teacher, the teacher's son or wife or of a man who has been initiated for a śrauta sacrifice by their bare names⁸⁰⁹ and then says that when it is absolutely necessary

806. यत्रास्य निन्दापरीवादौ स्यातां न तत्र तिष्ठेत् । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 28. 26. निन्दा is declaring faults that really do not exist and परीवाद is pointing out faults that do exist.

807. सुण्डजटिलशिखाजटाश्च । गौतम I. 26 ; जटिलः शिखाजटो वा वापयेदितरान् आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 2. 31-32.

808. न पथि शिखा विमुञ्जेत् । हारीत quoted by अपरार्क p. 225.

809. आचार्यतपुत्रस्त्रीदीक्षितनामानि । नामगोत्रे शुरोः समानतो निर्दिशेत् । गौतम II. 24 and 28. If the dīkṣita is present he may be addressed as 'भा दीक्षित (or भो यजमान) एवं कुरु' and when absent as 'तत्रभवता दीक्षितेनैवं कृतम्' &c. Of Gaut. II. 28 Haradatta gives two explanations (समानतः, either means मानेन सह or सम्यग् आनतः) and he takes 28 to refer to the pupil's name. Vide मेघा. on मनु. II. 128 for explanations. सं. प्र. p. 492 explain समाननाम्नः पुरुषान्तराद्वा. Vide मनु II. 199 and विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 28. 24.

to refer to these by name the student should not pronounce the name and gotra of his teacher as they are, but by means of a synonym (e. g. if the teacher's name is Haradatta or Deveśvara the pupil should respectively say Devarāta or Sureśvara). Ap. Dh. S. I. 2. 8. 15 says that even after returning home a snātaka should avoid touching his former teacher with his fingers (to call his attention), frequent muttering of something in his ears, laughing into his face, calling him out loudly, taking his name, ordering him about. Manu II. 128 and Gaut. VI. 19 say that a man who has been initiated for a śrauta sacrifice should not be addressed by his name, even though he be younger than the person addressing, but that one should use the words ' bhoḥ ' and ' bhavat ' when addressing him or speaking about him and may refer to him by words like dikṣita &c. There are other rules about addressing or referring by name which may be set out here for the sake of completeness. The Sm. C. (I. p. 45) and Haradatta on Gaut. II. 29 quote a śmṛti⁸¹⁰ that one should not mention by name only one's teacher, teacher's son and wife, a dikṣita, any other guru, father, mother, paternal and maternal uncles, one's benefactor, a learned man, one's father-in-law, one's husband, one's mother's sister. The Mahābhārata says that one should not mention by name or address as ' tvam ' (thou) one's elders, but one may speak of one's contemporaries or those who are younger by their names.⁸¹¹ Another verse says that one should not mention one's own name, the name of one's guru, the name of a mean person, of one's wife and one's eldest child.

Upasaṁgrahana consists in repeating one's gotra and name, saying ' I salute ', touching one's ears, clasping the feet (as stated above) and bending one's head while so doing. In *abhivādana* there is no clasping of the feet with the hands ; one

810. आचार्यं चैव तत्पुत्रं तद्भार्यां दीक्षितं शुकम् । पितरं वा पितृव्यं च मातुलं मातरं तथा ॥ हितैषिणं च विद्वांसं श्वशुरं पतिमेव च । न ब्रूयान्नामतो विद्वान्मातुश्च भगिनीं तथा ॥ स्मृतिच० I. p. 45 and हरदत्त on गौ. II. 29.

811. स्वकारं नामधेयं च ज्येष्ठानां परिवर्जयेत् । अवराणां समानानामुभयेषां न दुष्यति ॥ शान्तिपर्व 193. 25 ; vide also Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 8 ; आत्मनाम शुरोर्नाम यन्नाम कृपणस्य च । श्रेयस्कामो न गृहीयाज्ज्येष्ठापत्यकलत्रयोः ॥ quoted by the मदनपारिजात p. 27 (but in अभिवादन one has to take one's name) and on p. 119 (1st स्तवक) it quotes from नारद ' शुरोज्येष्ठकलत्रस्य भ्रातृज्येष्ठस्य चात्मनः । आयुष्कामो न गृहीयाज्ज्येष्ठकलत्रस्य च ॥ '

may or may not touch the feet of the person to be honoured. *Abhivādana* must always be preceded by *pratyutthāna*.⁸¹²

Very detailed rules were laid down about *pratyutthāna* (rising from one's seat to receive a person), *abhivādana* (saluting a man), *upasaṃgrahaṇa* (saluting by clasping the feet of the teacher or another with one's hands), *pratyabhivāda* (returning a salutation), and *namaskāra* (bowing with the word ' namaḥ '). According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 19 and I. 3. 10. 17 the student must, when he meets his teacher after sunrise, clasp his teacher's feet and also before beginning the day's lesson of Vedic study and also after finishing it. Manu II. 71 says the same. Gaut. (I. 52-54) prescribes the clasping of the feet every day in the morning and at the beginning and at the end of a lesson in the Veda. According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 20 on other occasions whenever the student meets the teacher only *abhivādana* is sufficient, though according to some teachers (Āp. I. 2. 5. 21) clasping the teacher's feet is necessary on each occasion. Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 22 states that in *upasaṃgrahaṇa* the teacher's right foot is to be stroked below and above with the student's right hand and the foot and ankle are both to be taken hold of, while according to some teachers, the student must press each foot of the teacher with both hands and clasp them. Manu II. 72, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 15, and Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 24 say that the student is to clasp the feet of the teacher with crossed hands, touching the right foot with the right hand and the left foot with the left hand. Kullūka on Manu II. 72 quotes *Paithīnasi* that the student should clasp the teacher's feet with his hands turned upwards. Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 28 adds that clasping should not be done when either the teacher or the pupil is seated, or is lying down or impure. According to Gaut. VI. 1-3 one must clasp every day on the first meeting and particularly on his or their return from a journey, the feet of one's parents, of the blood relations of parents (e. g. paternal and maternal uncles), of the elder brother, of the guru (i. e. ācārya, upādhyāya) and of persons venerated by one's gurus. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 4. 14. 7-9) says that even after finishing

812. उपसंग्रहणं नाम अमुकगोत्रो देवदत्तशर्माहं भो अभिवाद्ये इत्युक्त्वा कर्णौ स्पर्श्या दक्षिणोत्तरपाणिभ्यां दक्षिणेन पाणिना गुरोर्दक्षिणं पादं सध्येन सस्यं गृहीत्वा शिरसि वनमनस्य । अभिवादान् पादसंग्रहणं नास्ति । पादस्पर्शनं कार्यं न वा । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 7; बो. घ. सू. (I. 2. 26 असावहं भो इति श्रोत्रे संस्पृश्य मनःसमाधानार्थम्) says that the ears are touched for concentrating one's mind; विश्वरूप on या. I. 26 says that touching the ear is the usage in some countries only. सर्वत्र तु प्रत्युत्था याभिवादनम् । आप. घ. सू. I. 4. 14. 16.

one's studies and returning home a man must every day clasp the feet of gurus (father, mother, teacher and other venerable persons) and of elder brothers and sisters according to their seniority.

Abhivādana is of three kinds, viz. nitya (obligatory every day), naimittika (to be done only on certain occasions) and kāmya (to be done only if a person has certain rewards in view). As examples of nitya abhivādana one may instance the rules of Āp. Dh. S.⁸¹³ (I. 2. 5. 12-13) "every day a student should get up from bed in the last watch of the night and standing near his teacher salute him with the words 'I so and so, ho' (salute thee); and the student should also salute other very aged (and learned brāhmaṇas) who may reside in the same village before his morning meal." Yāj. I. 26 also speaks of the latter. The occasional abhivādana is done on certain occasions such as return from a journey (Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 14). A person may salute elderly persons whenever he chooses, if he is desirous of long life or (bliss in) heaven (Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 15 and Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 26). Manu⁸¹⁴ (II. 120 and 121) says 'the prāṇas (vital breaths) of a young man mount upwards when an old man approaches; but by rising to meet him and salutation (to him), he (the young man) recovers them. He who habitually salutes and constantly pays reverence to the aged obtains an increase of four things viz. length of life, knowledge, fame and strength.' Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 11,⁸¹⁵ Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 44, Manu II. 130 and Vas. Dh. S. 13. 41 prescribe that a person must honour by rising and mentioning one's name an officiating priest, one's father-in-law, paternal and maternal uncles, even though these may be younger than oneself in

813. सदा महान्तमपररात्रमुत्थाय गुरोस्तिष्ठन्पातत्रभिवादमभिवादीतासावहं भो इति । समानग्रामे च वसतामन्येषामपि वृद्धतराणां प्राक्प्रातराज्ञात् । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 5. 12-13; compare मनु II. 122, 124.

814. ऊर्ध्वं प्राणा ह्युक्तामन्ति यूनः स्थविर आयति । प्रत्युत्थानाभिवादाभ्यां पुनस्ता-
न्यतिपद्यते ॥ मनु II. 120. This verse occurs in उद्योगपर्व 38. 1 and अनुशासनपर्व
104. 64-65 and also in the महाभाष्य vol. III, p. 58, where we have तथापूर्व-
वया ब्राह्मणः प्रत्युत्थेय इति पूर्ववयसोऽप्रत्युत्थाने दोष उक्तः प्रत्युत्थाने च शुणः । कथम् । ऊर्ध्वं
... पद्यते इति । Vide धम्मपद 109 (ed. by Fausbøll, 1900) for a verse closely
parallel to Manu II. 121.

815. ऋत्विक्श्वश्रुरपितुष्यमातुलानवरवयसः प्रत्युत्थायाभिवदेत् । तूष्णीं वोपसंगृह्णी-
यात् । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 14. 10-11; बौ. ध. सू. I. 2. 44 ऋत्विक्...मातुलानां तु यवीयसां
प्रत्युत्थायाभिभाषणम् । (but some mss. read 'भिवादनम्'); मनु II. 130 says
'असावहमिति नृयात्, while गौतम VI. 9 is ऋत्विक्श्वश्रुरपितुष्यमातुलानां तु यवीयसां
प्रत्युत्थानमनभिवादाः ।

years. Gaut. (VI. 9) however says that in the case of these one need only rise from his seat to receive them; but it is not necessary to salute them (abhivādāna is not necessary). Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 4 expressly says that in the case of officiating priests and others specified by Āp. and Gaut. and who are younger, rising from one's seat is tantamount to abhivādāna. Manu II. 117 says that one must perform abhivādāna to a person from whom one learns secular, Vedic or spiritual knowledge of any kind. There is some difference in the words used at the time of abhivādāna. Usually the words are 'abhivādaye devadatta-śarmā-ham'⁸¹⁶ bhoḥ' (vide Āp. I. 2. 5. 12, Gaut. VI. 5, Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 27, Vas. XIII. 44, Manu II. 122 and 124). But this mode is appropriate only if the person addressed knows how to return the salutation. Manu II. 123 and 126 and Vas. Dh. S. 13. 45 declare that in the case of those who do not know how to return a salutation (pratyabhivādāna, and according to Manu in the case of women also) one should omit the word 'bhoḥ' and simply say 'abhivādaye aham' (omitting one's name). Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 20 similarly says that in saluting women, a kṣatriya or a vaiśya one should use a pronoun and omit one's name.⁸¹⁷

The manner of abhivādāna was as follows.⁸¹⁸ 'A brāhmaṇa shall salute stretching forward his right arm on a level with his ear, a kṣatriya holding it on a level with the chest, a vaiśya holding it on a level with the waist and a śūdra holding it low (up to his feet) and that the salutation shall be by joining one's hands' (Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 16-17). The Madanapārijāta adds that abhivādāna is with both hands when the person to be saluted is learned, but with one hand only if he is not learned (p. 27) and the Sm. C. (I. p. 36) quotes Viṣṇu and Atri to the

816. That is one has to take one's name in abhivādāna; but one does not take the name of the person who is saluted (Gautama VI. 12). The स्तुत्यर्थसार p. 7 says that in उपसंग्रहण (and in अभिवादन also) the person saluting says अमुकगोत्रो देवदत्तशर्माहं भो अभिवाद्ये, मेधा. on मनु II. 122 says the words are अभिवाद्ये देवदत्तनामाहं भोः; हरदत्त on गौ. VI. 5 states that अभिवादन should be 'अभिवाद्ये हरदत्तशर्मा नामाहमस्मि भोः'; while कुल्लुक on मनु II. 124 says it should be अभिवाद्ये छुमशर्माहमस्मि भोः (i. e. he omits the word नाम, which मनु II. 122 appears to require and which गौ. VI. 5 does not require).

817. सर्वनाम्ना स्त्रियो राजन्यवैश्यौ च । न नाम्ना । मातरमाचार्यद्वारं चैके । आप. घ. सू. I. 4. 14. 20-22.

818. दक्षिणं बाहुं श्रोत्रसमं प्रसार्य ब्राह्मणोऽभिवाद्यतीतोरःसमं राजन्यो मध्यसमं वैश्यो नीचैः क्षुद्रः । प्राञ्जलि । आप. घ. I. 2. 5. 16-17; vide सं. p. 454.

same effect. The stretching of the hands up to the ear &c. indicates how far the head is to be bent in each case.

There were also other rules about honouring one's elders in the presence of one's teacher or honouring the teacher's teacher or about one's behaviour when a gentleman comes to see one's ācārya and leaves him, which are here passed over for want of space. Vide Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 6. 29-32, Manu II. 205.

A brāhmaṇa who does not know the form of returning a salutation must not be saluted by a learned man; he is like a śūdra (Manu II. 126). Similarly a brāhmaṇa was not to perform abhivādana to a kṣatriya or a vaiśya however learned the latter may be, but one should simply say 'svasti'; those who are of the same caste should do abhivādana.⁸¹⁹ The Mit. on Yāj. III. 292 and Aparārka p. 1188 quote sūtras of Hārīta prescribing as prāyaścitta a fast of one, two or three days respectively for a brāhmaṇa saluting a kṣatriya, vaiśya or śūdra and also for saluting when the persons saluted or the man saluting are in such a condition as to make them unfit for abhivādana. One should not salute with the shoes on or when one's head is wrapped up or one's hands are full (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 19); or if one carries a load of fuel-sticks or holds a pot of flowers or food in one's hands one shall not salute, nor shall one salute on occasions similar to the preceding (such as one being engaged in worship of manes, of fire or other gods or when one's teacher is so engaged), nor should one salute a teacher standing very close to him (Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 31-32). When one is impure or the person he meets is impure (owing to āśauca or other causes) no salutation is to be made or returned (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 17). Gaut. IX. 45 says that one should not occupy a seat or perform abhivādana and namaskāra with shoes on. One need not salute a person who is not a guru or who stands in a lower or higher place than oneself (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 14). Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 23, Manu II. 135 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 17 say that a brāhmaṇa ten years old is like a father to a kṣatriya even 100 years old and so deserves salutation from the kṣatriya.

819. नाभिवाद्यास्तु विमेष क्षत्रियाद्याः कथंचन । ज्ञानकर्मशुणोपेता यद्यप्येते बहुश्रुताः ॥
 ब्राह्मणः सर्ववर्णानां स्वस्ति कुर्यादिति श्रुतिः । सर्वैस्तु सर्वानां कार्यमेवाभिवादनम् ॥ शातातप
 quoted by अपराकं p. 52; vide स्मृतिचं I. p. 37 quoting भविष्यपुराण and
 चम for the meaning of स्वस्ति; समित्युष्पकुशाज्याम्बुसुदनाक्षतपाणिकम् । जपं होमं च
 कुर्वानं नाभिवादेव वै द्विजम् ॥ आपस्तम्ब quoted by मिता. on या. III. 292;
 मोक्षकुम्भस्तोभिवादेन भैक्षं चरन्न पुष्पाज्यादिदस्तो नाशुचिर्न अपन्न देवपितृकार्यं कुर्वन्न
 शयानः । शङ्ख quoted by मिता. on या. III. 292.

Āp. Dh. S. (I. 4. 14. 12) gives a special rule that a friendship kept for ten years as fellow citizens, a friendship contracted at school for five years, the fact of a śrotriya being three years older entitles the friend or śrotriya to a salutation. But Gaut. (VI. 14-17) and Manu II. 134 give somewhat different rules viz. contemporaries who are born in the same year are to be addressed with the word 'bhoḥ' or 'bhavat' and a fellow citizen who is ten years older than oneself and an artist who is five years older than oneself and a śrotriya studying the same Vedic school as oneself who is three years older are to be addressed similarly. Manu adds blood relations to the list when the difference in age is very small. The Smṛtyarthasāra p. 7 gives a long list of persons whom one should never salute viz. an heretic, a person guilty of grave sins, an atheist, gamblers, thieves, ungrateful persons, drunkards. Vide also Manu IV. 30 and Yāj. I. 130 (as to showing no respect even by words to heretics &c).

In the case of certain persons one was to show honour only by rising from his seat and not by *abhivādana*. Gaut. (VI. 9) mentions some such persons who are already referred to in note 815. He adds that (VI. 10-11) even a śūdra of eighty years or more must be honoured by rising by one (even though the latter be of a higher varṇa) young enough to be his son (but there will be no *abhivādana*) and that an ārya (i. e. one belonging to the three higher castes) must be honoured by rising by a śūdra even if the latter be older (and so a vaiśya must honour a kṣatriya though the latter be younger). Haradatta explains that the word śūdra in Gaut. VI. 10 is only illustrative and that an old vaiśya must be honoured by a young kṣatriya or brāhmaṇa by simply rising from his seat and an old kṣatriya by a young brāhmaṇa in the same way. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 2. 4. 16-18) lays down that if a brāhmaṇa who has not studied the Veda comes as a guest one may give him a seat, water and food but one should not rise to receive him, but should rise to receive him if he is entitled to *abhivādana* on account of age (as stated in Āp. I. 4. 14. 12, and Manu II. 134); similarly a brāhmaṇa need not rise to receive a kṣatriya or vaiśya (except on the same ground of age).

The rules about returning a salutation (about *pratyabhivāda*) are made somewhat intricate and obscure by the varying interpretations of commentators. *Pratyabhivāda* consists in pronouncing a benediction in the proper form given by a guru

or other person who has been saluted. Among the oldest⁸²⁰ is the rule in Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 5. 18 'when returning the salute of one belonging to the first three castes, the (last syllable of the) name (of the person whose salutation is to be returned) shall be lengthened to three moras'. Vasiṣṭha's rule (XIII. 46) is 'when the salute is returned, the last vowel (of the noun standing) in the vocative is protracted to the length of three moras and if it is a diphthong (i. e. e or o but not of the dual number) it becomes 'āy' or 'āv' e. g. 'bho becomes bhāv'. Manu II. 125 prescribes "a brāhmaṇa should be thus saluted in return, 'mayst thou be long-lived, O gentle one!' and the vowel 'a' or any other vowel at the end of the name (of the person addressed) should be made *pluta* (i. e. lengthened to three moras) and if the name ends in a consonant, the preceding vowel is made *pluta*."

That these rules are very ancient follows from Pāṇini's sūtra (VIII. 2. 83) 'when the salutation of a person who is not a śūdra is returned by the person saluted, the final vowel in the name (that occurs at the end of the sentence of pratyabhivāda) becomes *pluta*.' The Mahābhāṣya comments on this and two vārtikas thereon say that this rule does not apply when it is a woman to whom the salutation is returned and it applies optionally when the person whose salutation is returned is a kṣatriya or vaiśya. All these rules are exemplified in the foot-note below.⁸²¹ Āp. Dh. S. agrees with this rule of the ancient grammarians. The verse of Manu (II. 125) also really means the same thing; but there the word '*akāra*' is only

820. प्रत्यभिवादनं चाभिवादिनेन शुर्वादिना विहितशब्देनाश्विचनम् । सं. प्र. प. 453; क्वाचनं च नाम्नोऽभिवादनप्रत्यभिवादाने च पूर्वेषां वर्णानाम् । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 5. 18; प्रत्यभिवादमामन्त्रिते स्वरेऽन्त्यः क्लृप्ते संध्यक्षरमप्रगृह्यमायावभावं चापद्यते यथा भो भाविति । वसिष्ठ XIII. 46; आयुष्मान्भव सौम्येति वाच्यो विभोऽभिवादाने । अकारश्चास्य नाम्नोऽन्ते वाच्यः पूर्वाक्षरः सुतः ॥ मनु II. 125. Some MSS. read पूर्वाक्षरसुतः as one word.

821. प्रत्यभिवादेऽशूदे । पाणिनि VIII. 2. 83; if it is a ब्राह्मण who performs अभिवादन (as in अभिवादये देवदत्तोहं भोः) pratyabhivāda is आयुष्मानेधि देवदत्ता ३ (3 indicates that the vowel preceding it is *pluta* i. e. drawn out to the length of three moras). If the name ends in a consonant the प्रत्यभिवाद will be आयुष्मान्भव सौम्यमर्शम्. If a woman salutes (as in अभिवादये गार्ग्यहं भोः) the return is आयुष्मती भव गार्गि (i. e. there is no सुत). If a kṣatriya द्विवर्मन् salutes the return is either आयुष्मानेधीन्द्रवर्मा 3 न् or आयुष्मानेधीन्द्रवर्मन्. If a वैश्य द्वन्द्वपालित salutes, the प्रत्यभिवाद is आयुष्मानेधीन्द्रपालिता 3 or धीन्द्रपालित. If it is a शूद्र तुषजक who salutes, the प्रत्यभिवाद is आयुष्मानेधि तुषजक (i. e. there is no *pluta*).

illustrative⁸²² and stands for all vowels. The ancient commentator Medhātithi interprets Manu so as to agree with Pāṇini and says 'in the realm of the use of words and their senses Pāṇini has higher authority than Manu, that the *pratyabhivāda* words containing the benediction about long life are not stereotyped, that when a *kṣatriya* returns the salutation of a *kṣatriya* or a *vaiśya* of a *vaiśya*, the same rules hold good'. As a person of a higher *varṇa* was not to do *abhivādana* to one of lower *varṇa* (vide note 819 above) there would be no occasion for *pratyabhivāda* from the side of the latter. The verse of Manu is interpreted by Haradatta and a few others in a different manner. According to them the last vowel in the name of the person whose salutation is to be returned is *pluta* and then 'a' is added to it, and that if the vocative ends in e or o, it becomes *āya* or *āva* (with 'a' added).⁸²³ This view is opposed to Pāṇini, the *Mahābhāṣya*, the *Kāśikā*, *Āpastamba* and several writers of digests. *Aparārka* and the *Sm. C.* condemn the interpretation put upon Manu's verse by commentators like Haradatta.⁸²⁴

What great importance was attached to the correct utterance of the return salutation can be seen from the fact that one of the miscellaneous reasons assigned for the necessity of grammatical studies in the *Mahābhāṣya* is that (as stated in a verse) a person who returns from a journey will perform salutation to ignorant persons (who do not know how to utter *pratyabhivāda*) as if to women with the words '*abhivādaye*

822. अभिवाद्यिता एव वाच्य आयुष्मान्भव सौम्येति । इतिशब्दः प्रकारे । आयुष्मान्नेषि दीर्घायुर्दुर्वाश्चिरं जीवेत्येवमादिशब्दपरिग्रहः शिष्टाचारप्रसिद्धो भवति । शब्दार्थप्रयोगे च मन्वादिभ्योऽधिकतरः प्रामाण्ये भगवान्पाणिनिः । विप्रग्रहणमविवक्षितम् । क्षत्रियादीनामप्येष एव विधिः स्मृत्यन्तरसमाचारो ह्येवमेव स्थितो न चैषां विध्यन्तरमस्ति । मेधा० on मनु II. 125.

823. The *प्रत्यभिवाद्* according to *हरदत्त* will be 'आयुष्मान् भव सौम्य देवदत्ता 3 अ १. If the name is *चक्रपाणि* or *विष्णु* it will be *आयुष्मान् भव सौम्य चक्रपाणा 3 य* or *विष्णा 3 व*. If the name ends in a consonant, the *प्रत्यभिवाद्* will be like *आयुष्मान्भव सौम्य अग्नि 3 द* (the name is *अग्निचित्* and so *चि* is made *हुत* and *अ* is added to the consonant *त्*). Vide *संस्कारप्र.* pp. 451-454.

824. अतश्च पूर्वोक्त इति विशेषणोपादानाद् व्यञ्जनसहित एव स्वरः स्थावनीयः । न पुनरपूर्वोक्तारो नामान्ते विधीयत इति निश्चीयते । अपरार्क p. 53; स्मृतिच० I. p. 37 repeats the words न पुनर धीयते. अपरार्क reads वसिष्ठ's सूत्र as 'आमन्त्रिते स्वरो प्रयुह्यमायाउभावं च' and gives as examples (आयुष्मान्भव) यज्ञभृता 3 इ (यज्ञभृते is vocative) or चित्रगा 3 उ (चित्रगो is vocative).

ayamaham' ⁸²⁵ (i. e. grammar is to be learnt by men for fear that they may be treated as women when a person salutes them).

Āp. Dh. S. (I. 2. 7. 27) prescribes that the student shall behave towards his teacher's wife as towards the teacher himself, but he shall not clasp her feet or eat the residue of her food. ⁸²⁶ Gaut. (II. 31-32) also says the same thing and adds that the student shall not assist the wives of the teacher at their toilet or bath nor wash their feet nor shampoo them. Manu II. 211, Baud. Dh. S. I. 2. 37, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 6 have the same rule. But Gaut. II. 33 states an exception that on return from a journey the student shall clasp the feet of the wives of his teacher (also Manu II. 217 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 15). Manu (II. 210) gives special directions 'the wives of the teacher who belong to the same caste must be treated as respectfully as the teacher but in the case of those who belong to a different caste he need only rise from his seat and salute' (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 5 also is similar), and 'a student who is full twenty years old shall not honour the young wife of a teacher by clasping her feet (Manu II. 212 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 13); but even a young student may prostrate himself on the ground for honouring the young wife of his teacher without clasping her feet (with the words 'abhivādaye amukaśarmā-ham bhoḥ').

As regards women who are not wives of the teacher, the following rules deserve attention. The first rule is that married women, whatever their age may be, deserve honour (and so he must salute &c.) according to the ages of their husbands ⁸²⁷ (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 18 and Vas. Dh. S. 13. 42). Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 2 gives the same rule, but restricts it to wives of the same caste. Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 6 prescribes that the same honour must be shown to the mother and father as to a teacher i. e. their feet must be clasped on those occasions on which a teacher's feet are to be clasped and Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 9 extends the rule to elder sisters. Gaut. (VI. 7-8) states that the feet of the wives of (elder) brothers or of one's mother-in-law

825. अविद्वांसः । अविद्वांसः प्रत्यभिवादे नाम्नो ये न ह्युतिं विदुः । कामं तेषु तु विमोक्ष्य स्त्रीष्विवायमहं वदेत् ॥ महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 3. This passage is quoted by मेधा- on मनु II. 123.

826. अन्यत्रोपसंग्रहणादुच्छिष्टाशनाच्चाचार्यवदाचार्यद्वारे वृत्तिः । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 7. 27.

827. पतिवयसः स्त्रियः । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 14. 18; ये चैव पादग्राह्यास्तेषां भार्या ह्युराश्च । मातापितरौ च । वसिष्ठ 13. 42-43.

need not be clasped on any occasion; and the feet of a paternal uncle's wife or of elder sisters need not be clasped except when one returns from a journey. But Manu (II. 131-132) gives different rules. A maternal or paternal aunt, a maternal uncle's wife, a mother-in-law are equal to one's teacher's wife and must be honoured like her; one's elder brother's wife's feet must be clasped every day if she is of the same caste, but the feet of the wives of one's other paternal and maternal relatives need only be clasped on one's return from a journey. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 3 places a maternal or paternal aunt and the eldest sister on an equality with the teacher's wife. As already stated above in the case of all women the salutation is simply 'I salute' (abhivādaye aham)' without mentioning one's name. Devaḷa says 'the mother, mother's mother, teacher's wife and the full brothers and sisters of one's parents, paternal grand-mother, mother-in-law, elder sister and the foster mother are women who are (to be honoured like) *gurus*'.⁸²⁸

Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 7. 30, Vas. Dh. S. XIII. 54, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 31, Manu II. 207 require that the student will behave towards the teacher's son as towards his teacher. That this rule is very ancient follows from a passage⁸²⁹ in the Mahābhāṣya; where it is stated and a proviso is added that the student will not however clasp the son's feet nor eat the leavings of his food. Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 7. 30 only mentions as prohibited the eating of the leavings of food, but Viṣṇu Dh. S. (28. 32-33) prohibits also the washing of the son's feet. Manu (II. 208) gives a restrictive rule that the son of the teacher deserves the same honour as a teacher, if he imparts instruction in place of the teacher (because the latter is otherwise engaged), whether the son be younger or of the same age as the student, but that the student in any case must not shampoo the limbs of the son nor assist him in his bath nor wash his feet nor eat the leavings of his food.

From Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 7. 28 and I. 4. 13. 12⁸³⁰ it appears that the system of pupil teachers (who were called 'samādiṣṭa')

828. माता मातामही शुर्वी पितुर्मातुश्च सोदराः । श्वश्रुः पितामही ज्येष्ठा धात्री च
शुरवः स्त्रियः ॥ देवल in सं. p. 471; almost the same verse occurs in औशनस
(Jiv. ed.) I. p. 503.

829. गुरुवदस्मिन्गुरुपुत्रे वर्तितव्यमन्यत्रोच्छिष्टभोजनात्पादोपसंग्रहणाच्चेति । यदि च
गुरुपुत्रोपि गुरुर्भवति तदपि कर्तव्यं भवति । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 135 (on पाणिनि I. 1.
56, वार्तिक 8)

830. तथा समादिष्टे अध्यापयति । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 7. 28; समादिष्टमध्यापयन्तं
यावदध्ययनमुपसंगृह्णीयात् । नित्यमर्हन्तमित्येके । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 13. 12-13.

obtained in ancient times and Āp. prescribes that the student shall behave towards a pupil teacher who teaches him at the teacher's command as towards the teacher and shall honour him also by clasping his feet, as long as he is giving instruction.

Further rules are laid down about showing courtesy to a person who is not a relative or who is not a teacher &c. Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 26-29 and Manu II. 127 lay down that one should, on meeting a brāhmaṇa, ask after his health with the word 'kuśala,' a kṣatriya about his health using the word 'anāmaya', a vaiśya by using the word kṣema (or anaṣṭa according to Āp.) and a śūdra by employing the word ārogya. Thus one who is older (according to the rule in Manu II. 134 cited above on p. 339) should be saluted, while one who is of the same age or younger should simply be asked 'kuśala' &c. Gāut. V. 37-38 gives similar directions.⁸³¹ Manu (II. 129) enjoins that one should address a woman who is the wife of another man and who is not a blood relation as 'lady' (bhavati) or 'beloved sister' and (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 30) that one should not pass a learned brāhmaṇa without addressing him nor a woman whom he meets in a forest or other lonely place and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 32. 7 says that in such circumstances he must address her (in order to assure her) as 'sister' (if she is of the same age as himself) or 'daughter' (if she is younger) and 'mother' (if she is older than himself).

It is stated in the Udvāhatattva⁸³² (p. 144) that the word 'śrī' is to be prefixed when referring by name to a deity or a teacher, to the place of one's teacher, to a holy place or to the presiding deity of a holy place, to one who has secured Yogic *siddhis* or to those who have secured by sacrifices the worlds of bliss; and Raghunandana adds that according to the usage of respectable people 'śrī' is prefixed to names of such persons while they are alive. The same work also tells us that women of the dvijātis were to have the honorific suffix 'devī' added to

831. According to हरदत्त the questions would be in the case of members of the four varṇas respectively, अपि कुशलं भवत्, अप्यनामयं भवत्, अप्यनष्टपुच्छनोति, अप्यरोगो भवान्. 'कुशलानामयारोग्याणामनुपश्रः। अत्यं शुद्धस्य'। ना. V. 37-38; हरदत्त on these says 'अपि कुशलमायुष्मन्ति ब्राह्मणः प्रष्टव्यः, अप्यनामयं अत्रभवत इति क्षत्रियः, अप्यरोगो भवानिति वैश्यः, अप्यरोगोसीति शूद्रः'.

832. देवं शुभं शुक्लस्थानं क्षेत्रं क्षेत्राधिदेवताः। सिद्धं सिद्धाधिकारांश्च श्रीपूर्वं सशुद्धि-
येत्॥ इति राघवभट्टवृत्तप्रयोगसारदर्शनेन स्वर्गकाम्यत्वादिना सिद्धेयधिकारो येषां तानि
त्यनेन जीवतां श्रीशब्दादित्वं नास्ति सूतानां तु न तथेति सिद्धः। उद्वाहतरत्न p. 144.

their names and of the śūdra caste the word 'dāsi'. This is still the practice particularly in Bengal and Northern India.

The works on Dharmaśāstra give very interesting rules about the grounds on which respect was to be shown to a person. Honour⁸³³ consists in saluting a person, or rising to meet him or allowing him to walk in front of one or giving him a garland, sandal-wood paste on festive occasions and the like. Manu (II. 136) and Viṣṇu Dh. S. (32, 16) say that wealth kindred, age, (performance of) religious rites and sacred knowledge confer title to respect, but each succeeding one out of these five is superior to each preceding one. Gaut. (VI. 18-20) is slightly different; he says 'wealth, relations, occupation, birth, learning and age must be honoured; each later named is more important than each preceding one; but Vedic learning is more important than all (the rest)'. Vas. Dh. S. 13. 56-57 also says that learning, wealth, age, relationship and religious actions are titles to respect, but each preceding one is more important than each succeeding one. Yāj. I. 116 puts the order as vidyā, karma, age, relationship and wealth (i. e. wealth is the least ground for giving honour). Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 35 says that if respect is not paid to *guru* (parents), *ācārya*, *upādhyāya* and *ṛtvik* (they are arranged in descending order) one incurs sin, but if honour is not shown on the ground of [learning, wealth &c. there is no sin but one loses happiness and success. Manu II. 137 says that a śūdra who is beyond 90 years is still a child to a learned brāhmaṇa. In order to show that Vedic learning is superior to seniority of age Manu (II. 151-153) narrates the story of a young scion of the Aṅgiras gotra who taught his piṭṛs and addressed them as 'little sons' and whose action was supported by the gods with the remark that a man destitute of knowledge was a child and he who taught him the Veda was his father. This story is referred to expressly by Baud. Dh. S. I. 4. 47 and tacitly by Gaut. VI. 20. It is borrowed from the Tāṇḍya Mahābrāhmaṇa⁸³⁴

833. पूजा वर्णज्यायतां कार्या । वृद्धतराणां च । आप. ध. I. 4. 13. 2-3; हरदत्त says 'अध्वन्यनुगमनादिका उत्सवादिषु च गन्धलेपादिका ।; वित्तबन्धुकर्मजातिविद्यावयांसि मान्यानि परबलीयांसि । श्रुतं तु सर्वेभ्यो गरीयः । तन्मूलत्वाद्धर्मस्य श्रुतेश्च । गौ. VI. 18-20.

834. शिशुर्वा आङ्गिरसो मन्त्रकृतां मन्त्रकृदासीत्स पितृन् पुत्रका इत्यामन्त्रयत् । तं पितरोऽब्रुवन्धर्मं करोषि यो नः पितृन्सतः पुत्रका इत्यामन्त्रयस इति सोऽब्रवीदहं वाव पितास्मि यो मन्त्रकृदस्मीति । ते देवेष्वपृच्छन्त ते देवा अनुब्रूवन् वाव पिता यो मन्त्रकृदिति । तद्वै स उद्वज्यद्वज्यति शैशवेन तुष्टवान् । ताण्ड्यमहाब्राह्मण 13. 3. 24. शिशु was the name of the sage.

(13. 3. 24). Manu II. 155 clinches the argument by saying 'the seniority of brāhmaṇas springs from (sacred) knowledge, of kṣatriyas from valour, of vaiśyas from (the possession) of corn and other wealth and only among śūdras is age a ground of seniority'.

Kauṭ. says that men deserve honour according to their learning, intelligence, valour, high birth and eminent deeds.⁸³⁵

One has to distinguish between abhivādana and namaskāra. In the former one not only bows but utters words like 'abhivādaye &c.', while in the latter one only bows and folds one's hands. The latter is done only to images of gods, brāhmaṇas, saṁnyāsins and the like. The Smṛtyarthasāra p. 8 prescribes a fast for one day as a penance for not bowing to images of gods, saṁnyāsins &c. Viṣṇu⁸³⁶ (quoted in the Sm. C.) says that one should not salute (abhivādana) a brāhmaṇa, but should only perform namaskāra in all public assemblies, in sacrifices or in palaces or royal courts. The posture of the hands in namaskāra is stated as follows: 'One should join the hands in the shape of a shegoat's ear in namaskāra to a learned man, one should fold the hands together in bowing to an ascetic, one should salute an ignorant man with one hand and should not perform abhivādana to one who is younger.'⁸³⁷

One had to show respect by circumambulating⁸³⁸ from left to right temples or images of gods, bulls, cowpens, cows, ghee, honey, sacred trees that had brick or stone platforms built round them (like aśvattha) and squares (where four roads meet), a teacher who is very learned, a learned and religious brāhmaṇa, clay from sacred places.

One was not to approach empty-handed one's parents, ācārya, sacred fires, houses and the king, if the latter has not heard of him before.⁸³⁹

835. पूज्या विद्याबुद्धिपौरुषाभिजन-कर्मातिशयतश्च पुरुषाः । अर्थशास्त्र III. 20.

836. विष्णुः । सभासु चैव सर्वासु यज्ञे राजगृहेषु च । नमस्कारं प्रकुर्वीत ब्राह्मणं नाभिवादेत् । स्मृतिच. I. p. 38.

837. विद्याकरवाजपेयिष्ठतं वचनम् । अजाकर्णेन विद्वांसं यतिं संपुटपाणिना । मूर्खं चैवैकहस्तेन कनिष्ठं नाभिवादेत् । सं. म. p. 468.

838. देवालयं चैत्यतरुं तथैव च चतुष्पथम् । विद्याधिकं गुरुं देवं बुधः कुर्यात्पदाक्षिणम् ॥ मार्कण्डेयपुराण 34. 41-42 ; शुक्ति देशमनङ्गाई देवं गोष्ठं चतुष्पथम् । ब्राह्मणं धार्मिकं चैत्यं नित्यं कुर्यात्पदाक्षिणम् ॥ शान्तिपर्व 193. 8 ; vide also 163. 37 for a similar verse and ब्रह्मपुराण 113. 40, वामनपुराण 14. 52, गौतम IX. 66, मनु IV. 39, या. I. 133.

839. मातरं पितरं माचार्यमग्निंश्च गृहाणि च रिकपाणिर्नोपगच्छेद्वाजानं चेन्न श्रुतमिति । भाष. घ. I. 2. 8. 23.

A matter closely connected with the showing of respect is that of the rules about the preference to be given on the road. This has already been dealt with in speaking of the privileges of brāhmaṇas above pp. 146-147.

One striking point about the imparting of knowledge (particularly Vedic) in the ancient educational system of India was the great prejudice against learning from books. The greatest importance was attached to handing down the Veda intact and various devices were discovered and employed for securing this end, such as the various modes of repeating the Veda only in padas, in the krama, jaṭā and other formations. Great care was taken to preserve the proper accentuation of the Vedic texts. There is a well known story how Tvaṣṭr repeating the words 'Indraśatrur-varḍhasva'⁸⁴⁰ in wrong accents caused the fire to be extinguished instead of inflaming it against Indra as he intended. This story is alluded to in the Pāṇiniyaśikṣā. The same work (in verse 32) condemns one who learns from a manuscript as among the worst of learners. The Veda was to be recited not only with proper modulation of the voice to convey the accents, but the accents were indicated also by the movements of the fingers (vide verses 43-45 of the Pāṇiniyaśikṣā). All these intricate matters could be learnt only by oral instruction.

Great controversies have raged round the question whether the art of writing was known in India in very ancient times, whether it was used for literary purposes in the times of Pāṇini and whether the Brāhmī alphabet was an indigenous product or whether it was imported into India from some foreign land. Max Muller in his 'History of ancient Sanskrit Literature' started the astounding and absurd theory that writing for literary purposes was unknown to Pāṇini (p. 507). Later on that position

840. मन्त्रो हीनः स्वरतो वर्णतो वा मिथ्याप्रयुक्तो न तमर्थमाह । स वाग्वज्रो यजमानं हिनस्ति यथेन्द्रशत्रुः स्वरतोपराधात् ॥ verse 52 of the पाणिनीयशिक्षा; गीती शीघ्री शिरः कम्पी तथा लिखितपाठकः । अन्वर्थज्ञोऽल्पकण्ठश्च षष्ठेते पाठकाधमाः । पाणिनीयशिक्षा verse 32. The legend is narrated in the तै. सं. II. 4. 12. 1 and the शतपथ I. 6. 3. 8. स्वष्टु wanted to pronounce the word इन्द्रशत्रुः, (meaning 'destroyer of Indra') as a Tatpuruṣa compound (in which the last syllable of the compound has the udātta accent), while he actually pronounced the word as a Bahuvrīhi (meaning 'whose killer would be Indra'), in which case the first word of the compound has the udātta accent (as in इन्द्रशत्रुः). Vide पाणिनि VI. 1. 223 and VI. 2. 1.

was given up. Then Bühler wrote his famous work 'on the origin of the Brāhmī alphabet' mainly relying on the resemblances of a few letters of the Aśokan script with an ancient Semitic alphabet and came to the conclusion that the Brāhmī alphabet was derived from a Semitic script sometimes about 800 B. C. It never occurred to that learned scholar to advance and carefully examine the other possible hypotheses which any unbiassed and cautious scholar should have ordinarily advanced viz. that the Semitic script might have been derived from the Brāhmī alphabet and was later on developed or both might have been derived from some unknown ancient script. All these theories are now in the melting pot on account of the seals bearing writing in some undeciphered script found at Mohenjodaro and Harappa, some of which are at least 5000 years old. So if the Brāhmī alphabet was at all borrowed, it is clear now that it was not necessary for Indians to travel so far as Westernmost Asia for that purpose.

Oral instruction was the cheapest and most accurate method of imparting learning. In ancient times writing materials were not easily available and written texts could not be handled easily and would have been extremely costly. Therefore the method of oral instruction was resorted to and having been hallowed by the lapse of thousands of years it has been persisted in to the present day. Even in the 20th century after writing has been known for not less than 3000 years according to scholars like Bühler there are hundreds of brāhmanas who learn not only the whole of the R̥gveda (about 10580 verses) by heart, but also commit to memory the *pada*⁸⁴¹ text of the R̥gveda, the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa and Āraṇyaka and the six Vedāṅgas (which include the 4000 aphorisms of Pāṇini and the extensive Nirukta of Yāska) without caring to understand a word of this enormous material.

Par. M. (I. 1. p. 154) quotes a verse of Nārada to the effect⁸⁴² 'what is learnt from reliance on books and is not learnt from

841. The *pada* text of the R̥gveda is the work of Śākalya and the *padapāṭha* is supposed to be *pauruṣeya* (composed by a human author). The Nirukta (VI, 28) criticizes Śākalya's division of the *pada* text. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. III. 242 says that *pada* and *krama* are of human authorship.

842. पुस्तकमत्ययाधीते नाधीतं शुद्धसंनिधौ । भ्राजते न सभासध्ये जायतेर्भ इव स्त्रियाः ॥
नारद in परा. मा. I. part 1 p. 154; सूत्रचि. I. p. 51 also quotes this verse.

a teacher does not shine in an assembly'. Vṛddha-Gautama⁸⁴³ condemns to hell those who sell the Veda, who condemn the Veda and those who write it down. Aparārka (p. 1114 on Yaj. III. 267-268) quotes verses from the Caturviṃśatimata which prescribe various prāyaścittas for selling the Vedas, the aṅgas (of the Veda), the smṛtis, itihāsa and purāṇa, the secret pañcarātra (system), gāthās, nītiśāstras &c. The prejudice against using books for learning was carried so far that among the six obstacles in the path of the acquirer of knowledge, reliance on books is mentioned as one.⁸⁴⁴ Aparārka (p. 390) quotes a long passage from the Bhaviṣyottarapurāṇa about the rewards of gifts of books of the epics and purāṇas to a brāhmaṇa or to a maṭha for the use of the public. A grant of the Valabhi king Guhasena I dated 559 A. D. refers to a collection of books on the true dharma.⁸⁴⁵ In the Kādambarī (para 88) the queen Vilāsavati is described as surrounded by ascetic women who held books in their hands and read itihāsa.⁸⁴⁶ Vide under dāna and maṭha-pratiṣṭhā.

The teacher was expected to make the student understand by explanations in Sanskrit or in the prakrits or even by employing the current languages of the various countries.⁸⁴⁷

The Duration of studenthood (brahmacharya):—It appears from certain passages of the Upaniṣads that the usual duration of brahmacharya was 12 years⁸⁴⁸. Śvetaketu Āruṇeya is said to have become a brahmachārī when he was twelve and to have mastered all the Vedas at the age of 24 (vide Chān. Up. VI. 1. 2

843. वेदविक्रयिणश्चैव वेदानां चैव दूषकाः । वेदानां लेखिनश्चैव ते वै निरयगामिनः ॥ बृहद्गौतम p. 582; the same verse occurs in अनुशासनपर्व 23. 72 (वेदानां लेखकाश्चैव).

844. द्यूतं पुस्तकशुश्रूषा नाटकासक्तिरेव च । श्रियस्तन्मयी च निद्रा च विद्याविघ्नकराणि षट् । नारद quoted in the स्मृतिच० I. p. 52.

845. I. A. vol. VII. p. 67.

846. 'इतिहासान्वाचयन्तीभिः पुस्तकानि दधतीभिः...जरत्पत्रजिताभिर्विनोद्यमान...मातरं ननाम । कादम्बरी para 88.

847. संस्कृतैः प्राकृतैर्विक्रयैर्यः शिष्यमनुरूपतः । देशभाषाद्युपायैश्च बोधयेत्स गुरुः स्मृतः ॥ quoted from the विष्णुधर्म by वीरसिन्धोदय (व्यवहार, ed. by Jivananda, p. 72).

848. उपकोसलो ह वै कामलायनो सत्यकामे जाबाले ब्रह्मचर्यमुवास तस्य ह द्वादश वर्षाण्यग्नीन् परिचचार स ह स्मार्नयानन्तेवासिनः समावर्तयन्तं ह स्मैव न समावर्तयति । छा. उप. IV. 10. 1.

quoted in *f. n.* 634). Similarly Chān. IV. 10.1 appears to suggest that students left their teacher after twelve years of study. But a long period of brahmacarya was not unknown to the sages of the Upaniṣads. Chāndogya (VIII. 11. 3) declares that Indra remained as a student with Prajāpati for 101 years (three periods of 32 years plus five). The story of Bharadvāja narrated in the Tai. Br. quoted above (at p. 271) states that Bharadvāja studied the Vedas three parts of his life (at least till 75 years). The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa⁸⁴⁹ (II. 5) states that the period of studenthood for learning all the Vedas is 48 years; that distributing that period in four portions among the vedas student-hood is for 12 years (for mastering one Veda), that period (12 years) is the shortest (for brahmacarya) and that one should learn of the Veda as much as one can before he is about to return from his teacher.

Some of the grhya and dharma sūtras contain these very words of the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa e. g. Pār. gr. II. 5 says 'one should observe brahmacarya forty-eight years for the (four) Vedas, or twelve years for each Veda or until one has learnt one or more Veda'. The Baud. gr. (I. 2. 1-5) has a very suggestive passage "the ancient period of studenthood was forty-eight years for (the four Vedas) or 24 years, or 12 years for each Veda or at least one year for each kāṇḍa (section of the Vedic saṃhitās like the Tai. S.) or until the student learnt (one Veda), as life is fleeting and as there is a Vedic text 'one should consecrate (the three) sacred fires, while his hair is still dark". On Jaimini I. 3. 3 Śābara states the objection (among other similar matters) that the smṛtis speaking of brahmacarya for fortyeight years are opposed to the Vedic injunction that 'a man who has a son and whose hair is still dark should consecrate the (three śrauta) fires' (i. e. he must do so in middle life, not when his hair is turning grey). Śābara gives his opinion that such smṛtis being opposed to śruti are to

849. तस्मा एतलोवाचाष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षं वेदब्रह्मचर्यं तच्चतुर्धा वेदेषु व्युह्य द्वादशवर्षं ब्रह्मचर्यं द्वादशवर्षाण्यवराध्यमपि स्नात्यंश्चरेद्यथाशक्तयेवम् । गोपथजा. II. 5 quoted in *f. n.* 628 above; आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 2. 16 has the सूत्र 'द्वादशावराध्यम्'.

850. अष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षाणि वेदब्रह्मचर्यं चरेद् द्वादश द्वादश वा प्रतिवेदं यावद्ग्रहणं वा । पारस्कर II. 5; अष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षाणि पुराणं वेदब्रह्मचर्यं संपदिशन्त्या वेदाध्ययनवित्येक आहुरा गोदानकर्मेण इत्येक । भारद्वाजयुह्य I. 9; vide also हिरण्यकेशियुह्य I. 8. 14; गोतम II. 51-53; शाङ्खायनयुह्य II. 10; मानवयुह्य I. 2. 6, आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 2. 12-15 अष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षाणि । पाट्टनम् । अर्थेन । त्रिभिर्वा ।

be disregarded⁸⁵¹ and makes fun of them by saying that some persons desirous of concealing their lack of manhood observed brahmacarya for forty-eight years and the prescriptions in these smṛtis to that effect are due to this fact.⁸⁵² The very orthodox Kumārilabhaṭṭa could not tolerate this light-hearted statement of Śābara and rebukes the latter by saying that there is really no contradiction between the *śruti* text and the smṛti passage, since the smṛtis themselves prescribe other lesser and alternative periods, since it is possible to hold that smṛtis speak of brahmacarya for 48 years only with reference to him who wants to become a saṁnyāsin immediately after brahmacarya or who desires to become a perpetual student.^{852a}

As the Vedic literature had grown to vast proportions and as it was thought necessary to preserve this ancient heritage, the ancient sages hit upon the plan of enlisting the whole population of the three varṇas in the task of preservation by making it as their duty to devote as much time as they could to the study and conservation of the Vedic literature. Therefore various alternatives were proposed viz. studying all the four Vedas for 48 years, three of them for 36 or if a man was very clever he may finish the study of three Vedas in 18 years or in 9 years or he should devote as much time as he would require for learning one Veda or more. Vide Manu III. 1-2 and Yāj. I. 36 and 52 for the various alternatives. Spending 12 years for Vedic

851. As upanayana was usually performed in the 8th year from conception or birth, the period of studenthood (if it was to be 48 years) would not end till a man became 56. Only a householder could consecrate the śrauta fires. So if the man was to marry after fifty-six his hair would be turning grey and by following the smṛti rule he would run counter to the Vedic injunction. Thus smṛtis would be opposed to śruti and Jaimini's conclusion in I. 3. 3 is that when that is the case smṛti is to be disregarded.

852. अष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षाणि वेदब्रह्मचर्यचरणं जातपुत्रः कृष्णकेशोऽशीनादधीत इत्यनेन विरुद्धम् । शबर on जै. I. 3. 3. p. 169; अपुंस्त्वं प्रच्छादयन्तश्चाष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षाणि वेदब्रह्मचर्यं चरितवन्तः । तत एषा स्मृतिरित्यवगम्यते । शबर on जै. I. 3. 4. p. 186.

852a. अष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षं वेदब्रह्मचर्याचरणस्यापि स्मृतावेव पक्षान्तरविकल्पोपनिबन्धनादाश्रमान्तरविषयत्वसंभवाद्वा विरोधाभावः । तथाहि—वेदानधीत्य वेदौ वा वेदं वापि यथाक्रमम् (मनु 3. 2) । सामर्थ्याश्रमयोग्यत्वमङ्गीकृत्यैतदुच्यते । ...तत्रैवं शक्यते वक्तुं येऽन्ध-पङ्गवाद्यो नराः । गृहस्थत्वं न शक्यन्ति कर्तुं तेषामयं विधिः ॥ नैष्ठिकब्रह्मचर्यं वा परिव्राजकतापि वा । तैर्वश्यं ग्रहीतव्या तेनादवेतदुच्यते ॥ ...यो वा कश्चिन्नेषावितया शीघ्रमेव वेदचतुष्टयमप्यधीत्य यथोपपत्तिकालं तदर्थज्ञानाभियोगमपरित्यजन् ग्रहणान्तं चेत्वेतत्पक्षाश्रयेण गृहस्थो भवेत्तं प्रति द्वादशाष्टाचत्वारिंशद्वर्षपक्षावनेनैव स्मरणेन पूर्वपक्षीकृताविति नातीव श्रुतिविरुद्धत्वेनोदाहृत्यौ । तन्त्रवार्तिक pp. 192-193.

study must have been found even in ancient times impossible for many among the brāhmaṇas and therefore the Bhāradvāja gr̥hya (quoted above in note 850) allowed the alternative that one should study the Veda till the Godāna ceremony (which as we shall see later on) took place in the 16th year. Āśv. gr. sūtra I. 22. 3-4 also prescribes only two alternatives for brahmacarya viz. for 12 years or as long as one could learn the Veda (so Āśv. contemplated brahmacarya for less than 12 years). Haradatta remarks on Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 2. 16⁸⁵³ that reading Āp. I. 1. 2. 12-16, I. 11. 3. 1 and Manu III. 1 together it follows that every one must observe brahmacarya for three years at least for each Veda and when it is said that one may observe brahmacarya till one learns the Veda, that means beyond three years for each Veda. This appears somewhat opposed to the words of Āśv. and Bhāradvāja.

Not only was the study of the Veda made an absolute duty for all persons belonging to the three higher varṇas, but the study of Veda was essential for the performance of the solemn Vedic sacrifices. Jaimini⁸⁵⁴ lays down that it is only he who knows the Vedic portion necessary for a Vedic sacrifice, that is entitled to perform that sacrifice.

Subjects of Study:—The study of the Veda means the study of the Mantras and the Brāhmaṇa portion of the particular śākhā or śākhās.⁸⁵⁵ The Veda was deemed to be eternal and not composed by any human author (i.e. it is apauruṣeya). Jaimini in I. 1. 6-23 establishes that the relation of word and sense is eternal and that (in I. 1. 27-32) the Vedas are apauruṣeya. This is not the place to set out or examine the arguments. All dharmaśāstra writers proceed on this axiom of the eternity of the Veda. The Vedāntasūtra (I. 3. 28-29) says that the Vedas are eternal and the whole universe (including the gods) emanates from the Veda

853. विद्यया स्नातित्येतस्मिन् पक्षे नातित्वस्ति न स्नातव्यमित्येवमर्थमिदमारभ्यते । एतेन एकस्य वेदस्य त्रीणि वर्षाणि ब्रह्मचर्यमवश्यं भावीत्यथार्त्तं सिद्धम् । ग्रहणान्तिकमेव वा (मनु 3. 1) इति एकैकस्य त्रिभ्य ऊर्ध्वमनियमो न प्रागित्यर्थो द्रष्टव्यः । हरदत्त on आप. ध. सू. I. 1. 2. 16.

854. ज्ञाते च वाचनं न ह्यविद्वान् विहितोऽस्ति । जै. III. 8. 18 on which शबर says 'अनारभ्य कर्माणि वेदाध्ययनं श्रूयते तस्मात् स्वाध्यायोऽध्येतव्य इति । कियता पुनर्विद्वतेन विद्वानधिक्रियते । यावता विद्वतेन ज्ञातो भवति यथोक्तं क्रतुमभिनिर्वर्तयितुं तावद्यो वेद स तेन क्रतुनाधिक्रियते ।'

855. Vide आप. श्रौ. सू. 24. 1. 31 and वो. गृ. सू. II. 6. 3 'मन्त्रब्राह्मणयोर्वेदनामधेयम्' । शबर on जै. II. 1. 33 'मन्त्राश्च ब्राह्मणं च वेदः'.

and reliance is placed on certain Upaniṣad passages and on Manu I. 21, Śānti-parva 233. 24 and other smṛtis. The Br. Up. IV. 5. 11 says that the Vedas are the breath of the great Being (i. e. the Supreme Spirit, God); in Br. Up. I. 2. 5 the Creator (Prajāpati) is said to have evolved all this viz. Rgveda, Yajurveda, Sāmaveda, yajñas and so forth. The Śvetāśvatara Up. VI. 18 says that the Supreme Being evolved Brahmā and imparted the Vedas to him.⁸⁵⁶ The Śāntiparva⁸⁵⁷ says that speech in the form of Veda is without beginning and without end, from which all activities and creation proceed, and that the Vedas become latent at the periodical dissolution of the world and become manifest to the great sages again when the world is recreated. But the eternity of the Veda and apauruṣeyatva of the Veda were interpreted in various ways e. g. the Mahābhāṣya says that, though the purport of the Veda is eternal, yet the arrangement of words is non-eternal and therefore there are various śākhās (branches or recensions) of the Veda, named Kāthaka, Kālāpaka &c.⁸⁵⁸

From very ancient times the literature to be studied appears to have been vast. Vide Tai. Br. quoted above (at p. 271) where the Vedas have been declared to be endless. In the Rgveda itself (X. 71. 11) reference is made to the verses learnt by the four principal priests (hotā, adhvaryu, udgātā and brahmā), it is also said that persons who studied together showed great disparity in their mental advancement (Rg. X. 71. 7) and that co-students feel elation when their friend wins in a debate in an assembly. The Śat. Br. (XI. 5. 7. 4-8, S. B. E. vol. 44, pp. 97-98) enumerates under 'svādhyāya' ṛks, yajus formulae, sāmans, Atharvāṅgirasah (Atharvaveda), itihāsa-purāṇa, gāthās in praise of heroes (called Nārāsaṁsis). The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa II. 10 also says 'in this way all these Vedas were created together with kalpa, rahasya (secret doctrines),

856. यो ब्रह्माणं विदधाति पूर्वं यो वै वेदांश्च प्रहिणोति तस्मै । तं ह देवमात्मबुद्धि-प्रकाशं सुखं चैव शरणमहं प्रपद्ये ॥ श्वेताश्व. उप. VI. 18 quoted by शंकराचार्य on वेदान्तसूत्र I. 3. 30.

857. अनादिनिधना नित्या वागुत्सृष्टा स्वयंभुवा । आदौ वेदमयी दिव्या यतः सर्वाः प्रवृत्तयः ॥ शान्तिपर्व 233. 24; युगान्तेऽन्तर्हितान् वेदान्तेतिहासान् महर्षयः । लेभिरे तपसा पूर्वं मनुजज्ञाताः स्वयंभुवा ॥ शान्तिपर्व 210. 19. Both these verses are quoted by शंकराचार्य on वेदान्तसूत्र I. 3. 28 and 29 respectively.

858. ननु चोक्तं न हि छन्दांसि क्रियन्ते नित्यानि छन्दांसीति । यद्यप्यर्थो नित्यो या त्वसौ वर्णोऽप्युपवीत साऽनित्या । तद्वेदाश्चैतद्भवति काठकं कालापकं मौदकं पैपलादकमिति । महाभाष्य on पाणिनि IV. 3. 101, vol. II. p. 315.

Brāhmaṇas, Upaniṣads, itihāsa, anvākhyāna, purāṇa, anuśāsanas, vākovākya &c'. In the Upaniṣads frequent mention is made of the literature studied by persons before they became seekers for the knowledge of *brahma*. For example, in Chān. Up. VII. 1. 2 Nārada tells Sanatkumāra that he had studied the four Vedas, Itihāsa-purāṇa as the fifth Veda, the Veda of Vedas (grammar), pīṭya (treatise on śrāddhas), rāśi (arithmetic), daiva (portents), nidhi (finding out hidden treasures), vākovākya (dialogue or dialectic), ekāyana (politics), devavidyā (Nirukta), brahmavidyā (metres and phonetics), bhūtavidyā (exorcising ghosts), kṣatравид्या (dhanurveda), nakṣatравид्या (astronomy), sarpavidyā (snake charms), devajanavidyā (arts like dancing, singing, preparing unguents &c.). The same list is repeated in Chān. Up. VII. 1. 4 and VII. 7. 1. In the Br. Up.⁸⁵⁹ II. 4. 10 and IV. 5. 11 there is a similar smaller list. In the Muṇḍaka Up. I. 1. 5 it is said that the ācārya Āngiras told Śaunaka who was a great householder that the four Vedas and the six āngas (mentioned in note 775 above) are inferior knowledge and that the highest knowledge is that by which the Imperishable One is apprehended. Gaut. XI. 19 exhorts the king to rely upon the Veda, dharmaśāstras, the āngas, Upavedas and Purāṇa for regulating the conduct of his subjects. Āp. Dh. S. (quoted above in note 775), Viṣṇu Dh. S. 30. 34-38, Vas. III. 19 and 23, VI. 3-4 mention the āngas of Veda. Pāṇini shows acquaintance not only with the Veda and Brāhmaṇas but he knew ancient Kalpasūtras, Bhikṣusūtras and Nāṭasūtras, secular works on various subjects (IV. 3. 87-88, 105, 110, 111, 116). Patañjali⁸⁶⁰ (2nd century B. C.) mentions how vast the field of Sanskrit literature had become. Yāj. I. 44-45 calls upon the student to study every day according to his ability also Vākovākya, Purāṇa, Nārāsaṁśi,⁸⁶¹ gāthās, itihāsa, vidyās if he desired to

859. एवं वा अरेऽस्य महतो घृतस्य निःश्वसितमेतद्यद्वेदो यजुर्वेदः सामवेदोऽथर्वाङ्गिरस इतिहासः पुराणं विद्या उपनिषद्ः श्लोकाः सूत्राण्यनुव्याख्यानानि व्याख्यानान्यस्यैवैतानि सर्वाणि निःश्वसितानि। बृह. उ. II. 4. 10. This is the basis of वेदान्तसूत्र I. 1. 3 (शास्त्रयोनित्वात्). Śaṅkara explains these in such a way as to show that they are parts of मन्त्र and ब्राह्मण. बृह. उप. IV. 1. 2 also contains a similar enumeration of literary works.

860. चत्वारो वेदाः साङ्गाः सरहस्या बहुधा विभिन्ना एकशतमध्वर्युशाखाः..... र्वर्णो वेदो वाकोवाक्यमितिहासः पुराणं वैद्यकमित्येतावाञ्च शब्दस्य प्रयोगविषयः। महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 9. सहस्रवर्त्मा सामवेदः means 'Sāmaveda that is sung in a thousand (numerous) ways and modifications'.

861. Mit. on Yāj. I. 45 takes गायिकाः as distinct from नाराङ्गिणीः 'नाराङ्गिणीश्च शब्दवैतान्मन्त्रान् गाथा यज्ञगाथेन्द्रगाथाद्याः।

please the gods and manes. Fourteen vidyās are generally enumerated as in Yāj. I. 3 (= Matsya 53. 5-6), Vāyupurāṇa vol. I. 61. 78, Vṛddha-Gautama (p. 632) and other works, viz. four vedas, 6 āṅgas, purāṇas, nyāya (logic), mīmāṃsā and dharmaśāstra. Some added four more to these, viz. the Upavedas of Ayurveda, Dhanurveda, Gāndhārvaveda and Arthaśāstra (which were affiliated respectively to the four Vedas) and thus the *vidyās* are also spoken of as 18.⁸⁶² Kālidāsa in the Raghuvamśa (V. 21) expressly says that Varatantu taught his pupil 14 vidyās. In E.I. vol. VIII. p. 287 (in an inscription of 199 Guptasamvat i. e. 517-18 A. D.) it is said about Suśarman, an ancestor of Mahārāja Samkṣobha, that 'he knew the highest truth because of his proficiency in the 14 vidyā-sthānas'. Kumārila⁸⁶³ in his Tantravārtika (p. 201) says that vidyā-sthānas that are looked upon as authoritative in knowing dharma are 14 or 18. The Vārāhagrhya (6) refers to different preparations for different people, viz. a yājñika had to study mantra and Brāhmaṇa, kalpa (vedic ritual) and mīmāṃsā and one could study at his option grammar, the smṛtis and vaktra(?) and the śrotriya only committed to memory the Veda; the first two were called snātakas. Numerous grants and inscriptions testify to the provision made by kings and well-to-do donors for all branches of study. In E.C. vol. III. T N. 27 there is a grant made by the minister Perumal under the Hoysala king Viranarasimhadeva in 1290 A. D. which provided that each teacher of the Rgveda and the other Vedas was to receive a salary of six gadyāpakas of gold a year and the teacher who taught the boys to read Nāgara, Kannaḍa, Tigula (Tamil) and Ārya (Marathi) was to receive the same salary. The Gadag inscription of the time of Vikramāditya VI. (1098 A. D.) refers to the founding of a school for teaching Prabhākara's system of Mīmāṃsā at Lakkigundi (E. I. vol. 15 p. 348). Vide E. I. vol. I p. 338 (for endowment for teaching an astronomical work of Bhāskara).

Even in early times a very extensive literature on Dharma-śāstra had come into existence. The literature of the epics, of kāvyas, drama, fables and romances, astrology, medicine and several branches of speculation had grown to an

862. वायुपुराण vol. I. 61. 79, गरुडपुराण 223. 21, विष्णुपुराण (quoted by अपरार्क p. 6) name the 18 विद्याs.

863. परिमितान्येव हि चतुर्विंशतिः वा विद्यास्थानानि धर्मप्रमाणत्वेन शिष्टैः परिगृहीतानि वेदोपवेदाङ्गाष्टादशधर्मसंहितापुराणशास्त्रशिक्षादण्डनीतिसंज्ञकानि । तन्त्रवार्तिका p. 201 on ज्ञे. I. 3. 6; vide also p. 195.

enormous extent. On account of this vast literature many portions of which appealed more to the emotions and intellect than the Vedas could, the study of the Veda receded in the background and the study of subsidiary works became more popular. Therefore the *smṛtis* again and again raise their voice and try to impress it upon all that the first duty of a *dvijāti* is to study the Veda. The Maitri Up. VII. 10, though comparatively a late work, inveighs against brāhmaṇas studying non-vedic texts.⁸⁶⁴ Manu (II. 168) says that the *dvija* who, without studying the Veda, bestows labour upon another lore, is quickly reduced to the status of a *śūdra* in this very life together with his descendants. Kullūka on this verse cites the aphorism of Śaṅkha-Likhita⁸⁶⁵ 'one should not, without studying the Veda first, study another lore, except the Vedāṅgas and *smṛtis*'. Vas. Dh.S. III. 2 expressly quotes the verse of Manu II. 168 as Mānava śloka. The Tai. Up. I. 9 speaks of *svādhyāya* (study of the Veda) and *pravacana* (teaching it or daily repeating it) as *tapas* and joins these two with *ṛta*, *satya*, *tapas*,⁸⁶⁶ *dama*, *śama*, fires, *agnihotra* and progeny in order to emphasize that these two are the most important and it also exhorts the student on the eve of his return home not to neglect his study of the Veda.

The study of the Veda did not merely consist in learning the mantras by heart. Śaṅkara in his bhāṣya on Vedāntasūtra I. 3. 30 quotes a Brāhmaṇa text to the effect that he who teaches a mantra or officiates at a sacrifice with mantras of which he does not know the seer, the deity or the Brāhmaṇa (i. e. *vinīyoga*, employment or use) falls on a stump or in a pit.⁸⁶⁷ The Mit. on Yāj. III. 300 quotes a verse of Vyāsa to the same effect. Not only was the Veda to be committed to memory (i. e. not only was there to be *pāṭha*) but one had also to understand

864. यदेष्वभिहितं तत्सत्यं यद्वेदेष्टुक्तं तद्विद्वांस उपजीवन्ति । तस्माद्ब्राह्मणो ना-
वैदिकमधीयीतायमर्थः स्वादिति । मैत्री उप. VII. 10.

865. अत एव शङ्खलिखितौ न वेदमनधीत्यान्यां विद्यामधीयीतान्यत्र वेदाङ्गस्मृतिभ्यः ।
quoted by कुल्लुक on मनु II. 168; योन्यत्र कुरुते यत्नमनधीत्य श्रुतिं द्विजः । स वै मूढो
न संभाष्यो वेदबाह्यो द्विजातिभिः ॥ औशनस (Jiv. ed. part 1 p. 517).

866. ऋतं च स्वाध्यायप्रवचने च । स्वाध्यायप्रवचने एवेति नाको मौड्गल्यः ।
तद्धि तपः । तै. उप. I. 9.

867. श्रुतिरपि ऋषिज्ञानपूर्वकमेव मन्त्रेणानुष्ठानं दर्शयति । यो ह वा आविदितार्थे-
च्छन्दोदैवतब्राह्मणेन मन्त्रेण याजयति वाध्यापयति वा स्थाणुं वच्छति गर्तं वा प्रतिपद्यते इत्यु-
पक्रम्य ' तस्माद्विदितानि मन्त्रे मन्त्रे विद्यात् ' इति । शंकर on वेदान्तसूत्र- I. 3. 30.

the meaning. The Nirukta (I. 18) quotes two verses⁸⁶⁸ which condemn in very strong language one who only commits to memory the Veda and does not know the meaning 'that man, who having studied the Veda, does not know its meaning, is indeed a tree, a stump, a mere carrier of a load; he alone who knows the meaning secures all happiness; his sins being shaken off by knowledge, he reaches heaven'. Dakṣa⁸⁶⁹ II. 34 says that the study of Veda involves five things viz. first committing to memory the Veda, then reflection over its meaning, keeping it fresh by repeating it again and again, japa (inaudibly muttering by way of prayer) and imparting it to pupils. Manu XII. 103 says 'those who have committed to memory the Veda are superior to those who are ignorant of it, those who retain their Veda (i. e. who do not allow it to be forgotten) are superior to those who only studied it (and then forgot it), those who know its meaning are superior to those who simply retain it in memory, those who perform what the meaning of the Veda dictates are superior to those who know its meaning'. Śābara⁸⁷⁰ says that the real purpose of the study of the Veda is the knowledge about religious actions that it conveys and that from the mere memorizing of the Veda, no rewards are promised by those who know the lore of the sacrifices. Viśvarūpa⁸⁷¹ on Yāj. I. 51 says that he alone is really vedapārāga who has made the Veda his own as to the spirit (the meaning). Aparārka (p. 74) quotes a long passage from Vyāsa condemning the mere memorizing of the Veda.⁸⁷² Vide also Medhātithi on Manu III. 19.

868. स्थाणुरयं भारद्वाजः किलाभूदधीत्य वेदं न विजानाति योर्थम् । यो अर्थज्ञ इत् सकलं भद्रमश्नुते नाकमेति ज्ञानविधूतपाप्मा ॥ यद्गृहीतमविज्ञातं निगदेनैव शन्यते । अन-
शाविष्य ह्युष्केधो न तज्ज्वलति कर्हिचित् ॥ निरुक्त I. 18.

869. वेदस्वीकरणं पूर्वं विचारोऽप्यसनं जपः । तद्वानं चैव शिष्येभ्यो वेदाभ्यासो हि पञ्चधा ॥ दक्ष II. 34 quoted by the mīta on ya III. 310 and अपरार्क p. 126.

870. दृष्टो हि तस्यार्थः कर्मावबोधनम् । न च तस्याध्ययनमात्रात्तत्रभवन्तो याज्ञिकाः फलं समामनन्ति । शबर p. 6. This passage is quoted by मेधा on मनु III. 1.

871. वेदस्य पारनयनमर्थतो ग्रन्थतश्च स्वीकरणं न ग्रन्थत एव । तथा च वक्तारो भवन्ति वेदाध्याययं न वेदपारग इति । विश्वरूप on ya. I. 51.

872. Two or three verses may be quoted; न वेदपाठमात्रेण संतोषं कारयेद् द्विजः । पाठमात्रावसानो हि पङ्के गौरिव सीदति ॥ ...योधीत्य विधिवद्देदं वेदार्थं न विचारयेत् । स सान्वयः शुद्धसमः पात्रतो न प्रपद्यते ॥ पाठमात्राद्विज्ञातित्यं द्विजार्थश्चार्थवजितान् । पशुनि-
व च तान्माज्ञो वाद्यात्रेणापि नार्चयेत् । अपरार्क pp. 74-75 quoting व्यासः; printed कूर्मपुराण (उत्तरार्ध 14. 86-87) has the पाद 'यो...चारयेत्'. औशनसस्मृति (Jiv. I. p. 517) has the first two verses quoted here.

In spite of these excellent precepts it appears that from very ancient times the Veda was only committed to memory and most men learned in the Veda never cared to know its meaning. The Mahābhārata⁸⁷³ speaks disparagingly of the śrotriya as having an intellect dulled by the constant repetition of the anuvākas of the Veda. Further there was always an undercurrent of the belief that the mere memorizing of the Vedic texts conferred great sanctity on the memorizer and removed all sins. As time went on these ideas became supreme and the neglect of the meaning of the Veda has gone so far that among many modern orthodox brāhmaṇas there is a belief that the meaning of the Veda cannot be known and it is futile to try to find its meaning. The Tai. Br. says that a man's sins are destroyed by the Veda and by svādhyāya. In Vas. Dh. S. 27. 1, Manu XI. 245, Yāj. III. 310 and in numerous other places it is said that sins do not affect a man who studies the Veda and that the study of Veda destroys sin. Vas. Dh. S. 28. 10-15 speaks of about 35 groups of Vedic hymns (like the Aghamaṛṣaṇa, Rg. X. 190) by silently muttering which a man is purified of his sins; but Vas. Dh. S. 27. 4 is careful to add that Veda study only removes such sins as are committed through ignorance or carelessness.⁸⁷⁴ Similar provision for removal of sins by the muttering of the Vedic mantras is made in Viṣṇu Dh. S. 56. 1-27, Yāj. III. 307-309, Manu XI. 248-260 &c.

Not only was the Veda to be committed to memory, but when learnt it was not allowed to slip from one's mind. Āp. Dh. S. I. 7. 21. 8 makes 'brahmojjha' (i. e. abandoning what is learnt) a grave sin along with drinking wine and others. Similarly Manu XI. 56 and Yāj. III. 228 also treat it as equal to drinking wine or the murder of a brāhmaṇa.

Similarly Manu IV. 163 forbids nāstikya⁸⁷⁵ (holding that there is no soul or no Hereafter) and the reviling of the Veda and in

873. ओत्रियस्येव ते राजन्मन्दकस्याविपश्चितः । अनुवाकहता बुद्धिर्धर्ममेवैकमीक्षते । उद्योगपर्व 132. 6 and शान्तिपर्व 10. 1.

874. न वेदबलमाश्रित्य पापकर्मरतिर्भवेत् । अज्ञानाच्च प्रमादाच्च दृढ्यते कर्म नेतरत् ॥ वसिष्ठ 27. 4; this verse is also अङ्गिरस् (Anan. ed.) v. 102.

875. Even in the Rgveda reference is made to people who did not look upon Indra as a god 'नेन्द्रं देवममस्तु' ऋ. X. 86. 1. We saw above (p. 26) that the dasyus are often spoken of as 'avṛata, ayajña and asṛaddha' (vide Rg. I. 51. 8, I. 75. 3, VII. 6. 3). In the Kathopaniṣad (I. 20 Naciketas says that people existed who thought that there was no

XI. 56 regards the latter as a grave sin equal to drinking wine, while Yaj. III. 288 treats it as grave as brahmahatyā. Gaut. 21. 1 mentions the nāstika among *patitas* along with brāhmaṇa murderer and drinker of wine. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 37. 4 includes the reviling of Veda among upapātakas (lesser sins). Manu II. 11 says that he who disrespects veda and smṛti by relying on syllogistic reasoning is a reviler of Veda and a nāstika (atheist) and should be excluded from social intercourse by good men. Vas. Dh. S. XII. 41 says 'to hold the vedas as unauthoritative, to carp at the words of the sages, and to be wavering on all points lead to one's destruction'. Vide Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 83 and Anuśāsanaparva 37. 11 for the same (in the latter the 2nd pāda is śāstrāṇām cābhilaṅghanam).

Another striking feature of the ancient educational system was the total absence of any prior agreement about fees for teaching students. So early as Br. Up. IV. 1. 2 we find Yājñavalkya

(Continued from last page)

survival of the soul after death and Yama declares that he who does not believe in the world hereafter again and again comes within his grasp (2.6). The word नास्तिक is derived by पाणिनि in 'अस्तिनास्तिदिष्टं मतिः' IV.4. 60 (the meaning being नास्ति परलोक इति मतिर्यस्य). The बृहती (of प्रभाकर) on the पूर्वमीमांसा सूत्र p. 284 (Madras ed.) regards बृहस्पति as the founder of materialism and the com. ऋजुविमला on the same quotes a verse (p. 285) 'अग्निहोत्रं त्रयो वेदास्त्रिदण्डं भस्मगुण्डनम् । बुद्धिपौरुषहीनानां जीविकेति बृहस्पतिः॥' This verse is quoted in the सर्वदर्शनसंग्रह (चार्वाकदर्शन) also. मेधा on मनु IV. 163 says 'वेदप्रमाणकानामर्थानां मिथ्यात्वाध्यवसायो नास्तिक्यम् । शब्देन प्रतिपादनं निन्दा पुनश्चो वेदोऽन्योन्यायाहतो नात्र सत्यमस्तीति'; while स्मृतिच० (II. p. 395) explaining Manu III. 150 says 'नास्ति कालान्तरे फलदं कर्म नास्ति देवतेत्यादि-मन्तो नास्तिकाः'. Manu IX. 225 prescribes banishment from the capital for heretics (pāṇḍastha). विष्णुपुराण III. 18. 27-28 speaks of the teaching of मायामोह as यज्ञैरनेकैर्देवत्वमवाप्येन्द्रेण श्रुयते । शम्पादि यदि चेत्काष्ठं तद्वरं पत्रमुपश्रुः ॥ निहतस्य पशोर्यज्ञे स्वर्गप्राप्तिर्यदीष्यते । स्वपिता यजमानेन किं नु तस्मात्क हन्यते'. नारद (ऋणादान verse 180) regards a नास्तिक as an unfit witness in general. The Sarvadarśanasamgraha gives a synopsis of the views of Cārvāka and the षट्दर्शनसमुच्चय of हरिभद्र composed about 528 (A. D.) also summarises the views of लोकायत (ed. in B. I. series by L. Suali). The Mahābhāṣya (vol. III. pp. 325-326) refers to Lokāyata. The well-known verse 'यावज्जीवं सुखं जीवेदुर्गं कृत्वा घृतं पिबेत् । भस्मीभूतस्य देहस्य पुनरागमनं कुतः' occurs in the सर्वदर्शनसंग्रह in its summary at the end of the section on चार्वाकदर्शन. The षट्दर्शनसमुच्चय verse 80 succinctly expresses the लोकायत view 'लोकायता वदन्त्येवं नास्ति जीवो न निर्वृतिः । धर्मा-धर्मो न विद्येते न फलं पुण्यपापयोः॥'. निर्वृतिः means मोक्ष. A comprehensive history of Indian Materialism would be a very interesting work but it has yet to be written.

saying to king Janaka who offered to give him a thousand cows, an elephant and a bull (or as Śaṅkara explains an elephant-like bull), ' my father was of opinion that without fully teaching a pupil one should not receive any reward from him '.⁸⁷⁶ Gaut.⁸⁷⁷ (II. 54-55) says that at the end of his studies the student should request the teacher to accept the wealth that he could offer or ask the teacher what should be given and after paying or doing what the teacher wants or if the teacher allowed him to go without demanding anything, the student should take the ceremonial bath (i. e. return home). The Āśv. gr. (III. 9. 4) has almost the same words. The Āp. Dh. S.⁸⁷⁸ (1. 2. 7. 19-23) requires the student to offer at the end of his studies, whatever their extent may be, a dakṣiṇā obtained from proper sources to his teacher according to his abilities and that if the teacher is in straightened circumstances, to offer him a fee even by begging from a person who is of the *ugra* caste or from a śūdra and that after offering a fee or doing even a very strikingly good turn to his teacher he should not boast of it to others nor should he ever dwell in his mind over it. The ideal was that the dakṣiṇā (fee) offered to the teacher at the end of study was simply for pleasing or propitiating the teacher and was not a complete equivalent of or compensation for the knowledge imparted. Manu (II. 245-246) says that the student need not give anything to the teacher till his snāna; when he is about to return home, he may offer to his guru some wealth; that the gift of a field, gold, a cow, or a horse, of even shoes or an umbrella, of a seat, corn, vegetables and clothes (either singly or together) may engender pleasure in the teacher. The Chān. Up.⁸⁷⁹ III. 11. 6 eulogises brahmavidyā by declaring it to be more valuable than the gift of the whole earth together with all its wealth. The smṛtis⁸⁸⁰ declare that even if the guru teaches a single

876. सहोवाच याज्ञवल्क्यः पिता मेऽनन्यत नानुशिष्य हरेतेति । बृह. उप. IV. 1. 2.

877. विद्यान्ते गुरुर्धनं निमन्त्र्यः । कृत्वाऽनुज्ञातस्य वा स्नानम् । गौ. II. 54-55; विद्यान्ते गुरुमर्थेन निमन्त्रं कृत्वाऽनुज्ञातस्य वा स्नानम् । आश्व. गृ. III. 9. 4.

878. कृत्वा विद्यां यावतीं वेदक्षिणासाहरेद्धर्मतो यथाशक्ति । विषमगते त्वाचार्य उग्रतः शूद्रतो वा हरेत् । सर्वदा शूद्रत उग्रतो वाचायां रथस्याहरणं धर्ममित्येके । दत्त्वा च नानुक्तथयेत् । कृत्वा च नानुस्मरेत् । आप. ध. I. 2. 7. 19-23.

879. यद्यप्यस्मा इमामग्निः परिशृहीतां धनस्य पूर्णां दद्यादेतदेव ततो भूयः । छान्दोग्य III. 11. 6.

880. एकमप्यक्षरं यस्तु गुरुः शिष्ये निवेदयेत् । पृथिव्यां नास्ति तद् द्रव्यं यद्दत्त्वा त्वद्वृणीष्वेत् ॥ लघुहारीत according to स्मृतिच० I. p. 66 and हारीत according to परा. मा. I. 2. p. 53.

letter to the pupil, there is nothing in this world by giving which the pupil can get rid of the debt he owes. The Mahābhārata says (Āśvamedhika 56. 21) that the teacher's satisfaction with the student's work and conduct is indeed the proper dakṣiṇā.⁸⁸¹ Yāj. I. 51 says that one should give to his teacher what he chooses to ask as dakṣiṇā and Kātyāyana⁸⁸² quoted by Aparārka (p. 76) prescribes that a brāhmaṇa pupil may give a cow, a princely one a village, a vaiśya a horse (if able to do so). It has been shown above (p. 355) how kings and others made gifts of lands or provided for salaries to teachers. One of the earliest record about university scholarships is contained in the Bahur (near Pondichery) plates of Nṛpatuṅgavarman in which we find a grant to a Vidyāsthāna (a seat of learning) for promotion of learning (E. I. vol. 18 p. 5). In E. I. vol. 15 p. 83 there is provision of 30 *mattars* of land for professors lecturing to ascetics and of eight *mattars* to teachers giving lessons to the youths in a monastery (in the times of Cālukya Someśvara I at Sūdi in Dharwar District in *śake* 981). The Peshwa distributed to learned brāhmaṇas every year dakṣiṇā which rose to 4 lakhs of rupees a short time before 1818 A. D. It may be stated that even in the 20th century there are numerous brāhmaṇa teachers of the veda and the śāstras who teach pupils for years without stipulating for any fee or even receiving anything from them.

According to Manu II. 141, Śāṅkhaśmṛti III. 2 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 29. 2 a teacher who teaches the Veda or the Vedāṅgas for money or for his livelihood is called an Upādhyāya. Yāj. III. 235 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 37. 20 and others include teaching for money (and also learning from a paid teacher) among upapātakas (lesser sins). Manu III. 156, Anuśāsana 23. 17 and Yāj. I. 223 say that he who is a hired teacher (bhṛtakādhyāpaka) and he who learns from such a teacher are not fit to be invited at a śrāddha. But Medhātithi (on Manu II. 112 and III. 146), the Mit. (on Yāj. III. 235), the Sm. C. and others say that a person does not become a hired teacher by accepting something from a pupil, but that what is condemned is making a *stipulation* beforehand that one would teach only if a certain sum or if so much

881. दक्षिणा परितोषो वै शुरुणां सन्निरुच्यते । आश्वमेधिकपर्व 56. 21.

882. गौर्वाह्मणस्य वरो ग्रामो राजन्यस्याश्वो वैश्यस्य । कात्यायन quoted by अपरार्क p. 76. The same is quoted as पारस्कर's by विश्वरूप on या. I. 51.

were paid or delivered.⁸⁸³ In distress, Manu X. 116 and Yāj. III. 42 allow even such stipulations for the purpose of securing one's livelihood.

The Mahābhārata (Ādi. 133. 2-3) shows that when Bhīṣma appointed Droṇa as the teacher of the Pāṇḍava and Kaurava princes he bestowed on him wealth and a well-furnished house full of corn; but there was no stipulation.

It has been shown above (p. 113) that it was the king's duty to support learned men and students and to see that no brāhmaṇa died of hunger in his kingdom (vide Gaut. X. 9-12, Viṣṇu Dh. S. III. 79-80, Manu VII. 82-85, Yāj. I. 315, 333). So a student, when the teacher demanded a heavy fee at the end of studies, could theoretically at least approach a king for the fee. Kālidāsa draws in Raghuvamśa V a graphic picture how Varatantu demanded a dakṣiṇā of 14 crores from his pupil Kautsa who approached Raghu for the same and would not take more than his requirements. Sometimes the teacher or his wife, according to legends, demanded fanciful dakṣiṇās. For example, Uttanka was asked by his teacher's wife, when he urged her to take something, to bring the ear-rings of the queen of the reigning king (vide Ādiparva chap. 3 and Āśvamedhika-parve 56).

It would be interesting to see how far corporal punishment of pupils was allowed in ancient India. Gaut.⁸⁸⁴ (II. 48-50) lays down that pupils are to be regulated (ordinarily) without beating; but if it is not possible to control the pupil (by words &c.) then he may be struck with a slender rope or with a split bamboo; that if the teacher struck (the pupil) in any other way (e. g. with the hand &c.) the teacher should be punished by the king. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 8. 29-30 calls upon the teacher to censure (by words) a pupil when he commits a fault and to employ according to the gravity of the offence any one or more of the following punishments till the pupil desists, viz. threatening (the pupil), refusing to give him food, drenching him in cold water and not allowing him to come in his presence.⁸⁸⁵ The

883. न चैतन्मन्तव्यम् । अर्थमादाय यदध्यापनं सा भृतिः । न हि पणपरिमाणसंभाषण-पूर्विका तत्र प्रवृत्तिर्यदेयददासि तदैतदध्यापयामीति । एतद् भृते रूपं न पुनरर्थोपकारगन्धमात्रेण । मेधा० मनु II. 112.

884. शिष्यशिष्टिरवधेन । अशक्तौ रज्जुवेष्टुविद्वलाभ्यां तदुभ्याम् । अन्येन ह्यत्र राज्ञा शास्यः । गौतम II. 48-50.

885. अपराधेषु चैनं सततमुपालभेत । अभिज्ञास उपवास उदकोपस्पर्शनमदर्शनमिति दण्डा यथामात्रमा निवृत्तेः । आप. ध. सू. I. 2. 8. 29-30.

Mahābhāṣya⁸⁸⁶ (vol. I. p. 41) refers to the fact that when a pupil pronounced a wrong accent (e. g. anudāṭṭa in place of udāṭṭa) the upādhyāya slapped him (on the back probably). Manu VIII. 299-300, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 81-82, Nārada (abhyupetyā-śusrūṣā, verses 13-14) follow Gautama as to corporal punishment, but add that beating should be on the back only and never on the head nor on the chest, while Nārada further rules that the beating should not be excessive. Manu (VIII. 300) says that the punishment in case of violation of these rules by the teacher is that for a thief and (VIII. 299) extends the same rules to the son and the wife. Manu II. 159 recommends that in imparting instruction about the right path of conduct, one should use sweet persuasive (not high-toned) words.

A few words must now be said about the education of kṣatriyas, vaiśyas and śūdras. According to Gaut. XI. 3 a king should be well-grounded in the three Vedas and in Ānvikṣikī (i. e. metaphysics) and in XI. 19 Gaut. says that the king has to rely for carrying out his duties on the veda, the dharmaśāstras, the subsidiary lores of the veda, the upavedas and purāṇas. Manu VII. 43 and Yāj. I. 311 say that a king should be proficient in the three Vedas, in metaphysics, in daṇḍanīti (the art of government and statecraft) and in *vārtā* (economic life and production of wealth). These directions were probably meant to be an ideal and very few kings ever went through all this. If any conclusions are to be drawn from the stories in the Mahābhārata, we may say that princes at least hardly ever went to a guru's home, but teachers were engaged to teach them (as Droṇa was engaged by Bhīṣma) and they became proficient in military skill. Alberuni (tr. by Sachau 1888, vol. I p. 125) says that brāhmaṇas taught the veda to kṣatriyas, but he is probably drawing only on the rules given in the smṛtis. Kings left ecclesiastical matters to their *purohita* and were always to rely on him for advice. Gaut.⁸⁸⁷ XI. 12-13 and Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 10. 16 require that the *purohita* was to be a learned man of good birth, endowed with polished speech, a fine form, middle age and high character and that he was to be well-versed in dharma and artha. Āśv. gr. III. 12 describes how the *purohita* is to prepare the king for battle. Kauṭ. in his Arthaśāstra after

886. य उदात्ते कर्त्तव्येऽनुदात्तं करोति खण्डिकोपाध्यायस्तस्मै चपेटो ददात्यन्यस्व करोषीति । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 41.

887. ब्राह्मणं च पुरोदधीत विद्याभिजनवाग्रूपवयःशीलसंपन्नं न्यायवृत्तं तपस्विनम् । तत्प्रसूतः कर्मणि कुर्वीत । गौ. XI. 12-13.

stating several views gives his own opinion that the vidyās for a prince are four (the same as those of Manu and Yāj. above), that after the *caula* is performed the prince should learn the alphabet and arithmetic and when upanayana is performed he should learn the four vidyās till he is 16 years old and may then marry (I. 5), that in the first part of the day he should have instruction in elephant riding and horse riding, riding in chariots and in arms and the latter part of the day he should devote to hearing purāṇas, stories, dharmaśāstra and arthaśāstra (politics). In the Hathigumpha Inscription (2nd century B. C.) there is a reference to *rūpa* (currency), *gaṇanā* (finance and treasury accounts), *lekha* (official correspondence) and *vyavahāra* (law and judicial administration) as the subjects which Khāravela mastered as heir-apparent from his 15th year to his 24th (vide E. I. vol. 20 p. 71 at p. 81, J. R. A. S. 1918 p. 545, I. H. Q. vol. 14 for 1938 p. 459 ff.). In the Kādambari also Bāṇa shows that prince Candrāpīḍa did not go to a teacher's house but that a school was built for him outside the capital where he learnt from his 7th to the 16th year.

As to the education of kṣatriyas in general we have hardly any directions in the dharmaśāstra works. But that there were several learned kṣatriyas and vaiśyas who sometimes became teachers cannot be denied. Kumārilabhaṭṭa says (on Jaimini I. 2. 2) that adhyāpana⁸⁸⁸ is not a special characteristic for recognising that a man is a brāhmaṇa, since certain kṣatriyas and vaiśyas who have given up the observation of the caste rules also do so.

About the education of vaiśyas there is still less material. Manu X. 1 lays down generally that the three varṇas (including vaiśyas) are to learn the Veda, (X. 79) that trade, cattle-rearing and agriculture are the means of the vaiśya's livelihood and that (IX. 328-332) the vaiśya should never think of giving up cattle rearing, that he should know the prices of jewels, coral and pearls, of metals and clothes, of perfumes and salt, the sowing of seed, the qualities and defects of soils, measures and weights, the different grades of qualities of goods, the profit and loss in trade, the rates of pay for servants, various alphabets and the places where saleable articles are produced or manufactured.

888. अध्यापनाद्यपि भिक्षाचारक्षत्रियवैश्यप्रतियोगित्वात्संदिग्धम् । सर्वे च दुष्ट-
शूत्रेषु संभाव्यमानत्वादन्यथैव । तन्त्रवार्तिक p. 108.

Yāj. II. 184, Nārada (abhyupetyāśusrūṣā 16-20) indicate that boys were apprenticed with master artisans to learn several *śilpas* (crafts) like preparing ornaments⁸⁸⁹ of gold or for learning dancing, singing &c. An apprentice was to stipulate how long he would stay with the master craftsman, that even if he learnt the craft earlier than the stipulated time he was still to stay with the teacher and work for him till the period was over, that the teacher was to give food and lodging to the apprentice and to appropriate the proceeds from his work, that if the apprentice left the teacher before the time fixed even though the teacher was ready to teach him, he was to be compelled to stay with the teacher and to be imprisoned or sentenced to whipping by the king if he would not stay.

As for the education of the śūdra, there are hardly any rules in the dharmaśāstras. He gradually, as stated above (at pp. 120-121), rose in status and was allowed to engage in crafts and agriculture and so the same rules might have been applied to him as to vaiśya apprentices. The śūdra could listen to the recitation of the Mahābhārata and the purāṇas as shown above (at pp. 155-156).

It appears that in very ancient times the status of Indian women as to education was much higher than in medieval and modern times in India. Several women are stated to have been the composers of Vedic hymns; e. g. Rg. V. 28 is ascribed to Viśvavārā of the Atri family; Rg. VIII. 91 to Apālā of the same family and Rg. X. 39 to Ghoṣā Kākṣivati. The Br. Up. II. 4. 1. shows that Maitreyī, one of the two wives of Yājñavalkya, the great philosopher of ancient India, was herself a very earnest seeker after true knowledge and she prayed to Yājñavalkya that he should impart to her such knowledge as would make her immortal.⁸⁹⁰ In the same Upaniṣad (III. 6 and 8) we find that among the several interlocutors in the court of Janaka, king of Videha, who propounded several questions for solution before Yājñavalkya, Gārgī Vācaknavī occupies a very prominent position. She pursued Yājñavalkya with subtle and searching questions till ultimately he was forced to warn her

889. विज्ञानमुच्यते शिल्पं हेमकुप्यादिसंस्कृतिः। वृत्तादिकं च यत्प्राप्तं कर्म कुर्याद्दुरोर्गृहे॥ बृहस्पति quoted in स्मृतिच० II. p. 195. It is interesting that the *śilpa* on yr. II. 184 regards आयुर्वेद as a *śilpa* to be learnt under the apprentice system.

890. सा होवाच मैत्रेयी येनाहं नामृता स्यां किमहं तेन कुर्यां यदेव भगवान्वेद तदेव मे ब्रूहीति। बृह. उप. II. 4. 3 and IV. 5. 4.

not to probe too much into the nature of the First Principle which was beyond mere human reason and logical questioning or otherwise she might die by the fall of her head. Then she desisted, but her unquenchable thirst for philosophical knowledge again swelled up and she put two questions to Yājñavalkya hoping to confound him. In the same Up. (Br. Up. VI. 4. 17) there is a rite prescribed⁸⁹¹ for one who desires to have a learned daughter. As in the very preceding sentence a prescription is given for one desirous of having a son who would master the three Vedas, it naturally follows that the learning of the daughter must refer to the same topic. But Śaṅkara, in whose day women were debarred from learning the Vedas, could not but explain the word 'paṇḍitā' as referring to proficiency in domestic work. It has been shown above (p. 294) that upanayana and veda study were allowed to women by Hārīta. In the daily ṛṣitarpaṇa (Āśv. gr. III. 4) among a host of sages water is offered to three women as teachers viz. Gārgī Vācakaṇḍī, Vāḍavā Prāthitheyī and Sulabhā Maitreyī. The very fact that the Kāśikā on Pāṇini IV. 1. 59 and III. 3. 21 teaches the formation of ācāryā and upādhyāyā as meaning a woman who is herself a teacher (and not merely the wife of a teacher) establishes that the ancient grammarians were familiar with women teachers. Patañjali teaches⁸⁹² how and why a brāhmaṇa woman is called Āpiśalā (one who studies the grammar of Āpiśali) and Kāśakṛtsnā (one who studies the mīmāṃsā work of Kāśakṛtsna). He also states the formation of the appellation 'Audameghāḥ' (meaning the pupils of a woman teacher called Audameghyā). Gobhila⁸⁹³ gr. II. 1. 19-20 prescribes that when the bride pushes forward with her foot a mat the bridegroom should make her repeat the mantra 'may the way which my husband goes by be also assigned to me' and that if she does not repeat this mantra (through bashfulness &c.) he

891. अथ य इच्छेद्दुहिता मे पण्डिता जायेत &c. । बृह. उ. VI. 4. 17; दुहितुः पाण्डित्यं गृहतन्त्रविषयमेव वेदेऽनधिकारात् । शांकरभाष्य.

892. आपिशलमधीते ब्राह्मणी आपिशला ब्राह्मणी । महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 205 (on वार्तिक 3 on पाणिनि IV. 1. 14); काशकृत्स्नना प्रोक्ता सीमांसा काशकृत्स्नी काशकृत्स्नीमधीते काशकृत्स्ना ब्राह्मणी । अत्र प्रामोति । महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 206 on वार्तिक 5 on पा. IV. 1. 14; vide also महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 249; औदमेघ्यायाश्चात्र औदमेघाः । vol. II. p. 229 (on पा. IV. 1.78).

893. पश्चाद्दग्नेः संवेष्टितं कटमेवंजातीयं वान्यत्पदा प्रवर्तयन्तीं वाचयेत् प्र मे पतियानः पन्थाः कल्पतामिति । स्वयं जपेद्जपन्त्यां यास्या इति । गोभिलगृह्य II. 1. 19-20. The मन्त्र (मन्त्रब्राह्मण I. 1. 8) is 'प्र मे पतियानः पन्थाः कल्पताम् । शिवा अरिष्टा पतिलोकं गमयेत् ।'

should repeat it substituting the words 'to her' for 'to me'. In the *Kāthaka*⁸⁹⁴ gr. 25. 23 it is said that the *Anuvāka* beginning with 'sarasvati predam-ava' (of 21 verses) was to be recited both by the bride and the bridegroom according to some teachers. All this shows that women could recite Vedic mantras in the *sūtra* period. The *Kāmasūtra* of *Vātsyāyana*,⁸⁹⁵ a remarkable though in some places a filthy work, prescribes that women should study the *Kāmasūtra* and its subsidiary *āṅgas* (viz. the 64 *kalās* such as singing, dancing, painting &c.) before they attain youth (i. e. in their father's house) and after marriage with the husband's consent. In the 64 *kalās* enumerated in that work (I. 3. 16) are included *prahelikās* (riddles of words), *pustakavācana* (chanting from books), *kāvyaśamasyā-pūraṇa* (composing a suitable portion of a verse to fit in with a portion given), knowledge of lexicons and metres &c. We read in the epics and the dramas like the *Śākuntala* of women writing messages to their lovers. In the *Mālatīmādhava* *Bhavabhūti* tells his readers that the fathers of the hero and the heroine studied in their youth together with *Kāmandakī* at the feet of the same master. From anthologies like *Rājasekhara's Sūktimuktāvalī* we learn that there were poetesses like *Vijjā*, *Sitā* &c. All these facts tend to indicate that literary attainments among women were not totally unheard of in ancient India.

But gradually the position of women became worse and worse. In the *Dharmasūtras* and *Manu* woman is assigned a position of dependence and even women of higher classes came to be looked upon as equal to *śūdras* so far as Vedic study and several other matters were concerned. *Gaut.* 18. 1, *Vas. Dh. S.* VI. 1, *Baud. Dh. S.* II. 2. 45 and *Manu* IX. 3 say that women have no independence and in all stages depend upon men. We have seen (at p. 265) also that all the *samskāras* (except marriage) were performed in the case of girls without Vedic mantras. Though according to the *Pūrvamīmāṃsā* the husband and wife were to perform Vedic sacrifices together (*Jaimini* VI. 1. 17-21) still women⁸⁹⁶ were only associated with their husbands and all the

894. 'ततो गाथा वाचयति सरस्वति मेदमवेत्यनुवाकम्'। उभावित्येके। काठकगृह्य 25.23.

895. धर्मार्थाङ्गविद्याकालानुपरोधयन् कामसूत्रं तदङ्गविद्याश्च पुरुषोधीयत। प्राग्यौ-
वनात्स्त्री। प्रजा च पत्युरभिप्रायात्। कामसूत्र I. 2. 1-3.

896. तस्या यावदुक्तमाशीर्द्धान् चर्यमनुल्लयत्वात्। जै. VI. 1. 24; अनुल्लया हि स्त्री पुंसा।
यजमानः पुमान् विद्वांश्च पत्नी स्त्री चाविद्या च।...यास्त्वशिषो यच्च ब्रह्मचर्यं तत्पुरुषं प्रति
गुणभूतम्...अत आशीर्द्धान् चर्यं चोभयोरपि स्यात्। यच्चाहृत्योच्यते यथा पत्न्याज्यमवेक्षते
इति। शबर.

actions to be done by the sacrificer (yajamāna) were to be done only by the husband except where the texts expressly requested the wife to do certain things such as examining the ājya or repeating certain mantras (VI.1.24). Jaimini says that the husband and wife were not equal and Śabara explains that the yajamāna is a male and is learned, while the patnī is a woman and has no vidyā. Medhātithi⁸⁹⁷ on Manu II. 49 raises the interesting question why brahmacārins when begging for alms used a Sanskrit formula (bhavati bhiṣām dehi) which language ladies do not know. He replies that women can understand that vernacular words which they use being similar to Sanskrit words must be derived from them and that these few well-known Sanskrit words they can easily grasp. Besides even in Vedic times there was a tendency as in many other countries to make sarcastic references to women. The Rgveda⁸⁹⁸ VIII. 33. 17 says "Even Indra said 'the mind of woman cannot be controlled; and also her intellect (or power) is slight'"; in Rg. X. 95. 15⁸⁹⁹ 'there is no truth in the friendship of women; they have the hearts of hyaenas'. The Śat. Br. XIV. 1. 1. 3 exhorts a person studying the Madhu-vidyā not to look at 'woman, sūdra, the dog and the black bird that are all untruth'. In Manu II. 213-214, Anuśāsanaparva chap. 19. 91-94, chap. 38 and 39 there is severe condemnation of woman. Such ideas, and ideas about pollution and the early marriage of girls are probably responsible for the great lack of literacy among women in medieval and modern times.

As literary education among women was in a languishing state or almost nil, the question of co-education hardly arises. There are no doubt faint indications that when women could at all devote themselves to learning, they must have been taught with male pupils. Poets like Bhavabhūti (in the Mālātī-mādhava) envisage a state of society in which a woman (like Kāmandakī) learnt at the feet of the same master along with male students (like Bhūriवासु and Devarāta, who later on became ministers of states).

897. कुतः पुनः संस्कृतशब्दार्थलाभो यावता स्त्रियः संबोध्यन्ते ताश्च संस्कृतं नाव-
बुध्यन्ते । ...एवं स्त्रियः साहृद्यात्साधुभ्योऽसाधुदुत्पन्नसंवन्धान् स्मृत्वा तेष्वोऽर्थं प्रत्येक्यन्ति
स्वल्पाक्षरं चैतत्पदत्रयं सर्वप्रसिद्धं स्त्रीभिरपि मुज्ञानम् । मेधा० on मनु. II. 49.

898. इन्द्रश्चिद्धा तदब्रवीत् स्त्रिया अज्ञार्यं मनः । उतो अहं क्रतुं रघुम् ॥ ऋ.
VIII. 33. 17.

899. न वै स्त्रैणानि सख्यानि सन्ति सालाहृकार्णा हृदयान्येता । ऋ. X. 95. 15.

The house of the ācārya where the student learnt was called ācāryakula (vide Chāṇ. Up. II. 23. 2, IV. 5. 1., IV. 9. 1, VIII. 15. 1). The teacher who presided over a large establishment of pupils was called kulapati (e. g. Kaṇva is so referred to in the Śākuntala, vide note 134 above).

It is outside the scope of this work to show from the numerous inscriptions and copper-plate grants that have been published so far, how ancient kings and rich private persons made substantial grants to famous schools, colleges and universities. There were famous universities at Takṣaśilā (modern Taxila), Valabhi, Benares, Nālandā, Vikramaśilā &c. For an account of the university of Nālandā in the 7th century reference may be made to the accounts given by the two Chinese travellers Yuan Chwang (vide Watters vol. II. pp. 109, 246) and Itsing ('Records of the Buddhist Religion' by Dr. Takakusu pp. 154, 177 &c.). Most of those seats of learning were endowed. One of the earliest of such grants is that of the Pallava Nṛpatuṅga-varman (Bahur Plates, E. I. 18 p. 5) whereby three villages were bestowed as a source of revenue (vidyābhoga) for the promotion of learning to the residents of a seat of learning (vidyāsthāna, a college) at Vāgūr. The Kāvya-mīmāṃsā of Rājaśekhara (in chap. 10) calls upon the king to hold assemblies of poets and learned men, to arrange for their examination and to distribute rewards to them in the manner of such ancient kings as Vāsudeva, Śātavāhana, Śūdraka, Sāhasāṅka. It also says that in Ujjayinī such poets as Kālidāsa, Meṇṭha, Bhāravi, Haricandra were examined and in Pāṭaliputra (modern Patna) such famous śāstrakāras as Pāṇini, Vyādi, Vararuci, Patañjali, Varṣa, Upavarṣa, and Piṅgala were examined.

The salient features of the educational system outlined in the Dharmaśāstra works are the high and honourable position assigned to the teacher, the close personal contact of the pupil with the teacher and individual attention, the pupil's stay with the teacher as a member of his family, oral instruction and the absence of books, stern discipline and control of emotions and the will, cheapness (as no fees were stipulated for). The Indian system compares most favourably with any system of education of the West, whether in Greece or Rome or any other country. It gave to the students a more or less literary education, particularly of the Vedic literature and of philosophy, grammar and other subjects ancillary thereto. The principal

effort was directed towards the conservation of the ancient literature rather than to the creation of fresh literature. In these respects it was similar to the Grammar Schools of England and to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge as they were till about the middle of the 19th century. The defects of the Indian system were that it was too literary, there was too much memorizing, boys under it had hardly any instruction in useful manual arts and crafts, the studies were not brought in contact with practical life. The discipline was rigorous and joyless. Many of these defects were due to the exigencies of the caste system which assigned particular avocations to particular castes. We cannot and should not compare the system with the systems of education prevalent in the 20th century, when several subjects such as literature, music and the fine arts, handicrafts, mathematics, science, history and geography are taught in the schools to all boys and when it has been recognised that education is a prime concern of the State.

The four Veda-vratas:—Among the saṁskāras enumerated by Gautama there are four Veda-vratas (Gaut. VIII. 15). These four are also included in the 16 saṁskāras by several smṛtis. Their names and procedure differ considerably in the several grhyasūtras. Some grhyasūtras like Pār. do not describe them. A brief reference will be made to them here. The Āśv. gr. I. 22. 20⁹⁰⁰ says in general words that in the vratas all the ceremonies beginning from shaving the head up to paridāna (i. e. Āśv. gr. I. 19. 8 to I. 20. 7) that are performed at the upanayana are repeated each time with each vrata. And the four vratas according to the Āśvalāyana smṛti (in verse) were Mahānāmni vrata, Mahāvratā (Āit. Ār. I. and V), Upaniṣad vrata and Godāna. Each vrata is to be performed for a year. Vide Laghu Āśvalāyana 11th section (Ānan. Ed). The Śān. gr. (II. 11-12) describes, after the student is instructed in the sacred Gāyatrī, four vratas (observances) called Śukriya (which precedes the study of the main part of the R̥gveda), the Śākvara, Vratika and Aupaniṣada vratas (which three precede the study of the different sections of the Aitareya Āraṇyaka). The observance of the first of these (viz. Śukriya) lasted for three days or twelve days or one year or as long as the teacher liked and the observances of the other three were to be kept for one year each (Śān. gr. II. 11. 10-12, S. B. E. vol. 29

900. एतेन वापनादि परिदानान्तं व्रतदेक्षणं व्याख्यातम् । आश्व. गृ. I. 22. 20.

p. 77). At the beginning of each of these three vratas there is a separate upanayana, followed by a ceremony called Uddik-
ṣaṇkā (giving up the preparatory observances) and then the
vrata is to be performed for one year. The Āraṇyaka is to be
studied in the forest out of the village. Manu II. 174 prescribes
that at the time of the beginning of each of these vratas the
student had to put on a new deer skin, a new yajñopavita and
a new girdle. The Gobhila grhya III. 1. 26-31 (which is
connected with the Sāmaveda) mentions the vratas as
Godānika, Vratika, Āditya, Aupanīṣada, Jyeṣṭha-sāmika, each
lasting for one year. It adds that some do not observe the
Āditya-vrata. The godāna vrata is connected by the Gobhiliya
with the saṁskāra of godāna (to be described below) and it
prescribes certain observances for it such as removing all hair
on the head, chin and lips; avoiding false-hood, anger, sexual
intercourse, perfumes, dancing and singing, collyrium, honey
and meat; not wearing shoes in the village. It also prescribes
that wearing the girdle, begging for food, carrying a staff,
daily bath, offering a fuel-stick, and clasping the teacher's feet
in the morning are common to all vratas. The Godānika
enabled the student to study the Pūrvārcika of the Sāmaveda
(i. e. the collection of verses sacred to Agni, Indra and Soma
Pavamāna). The Vratika was introductory to the study of the
Āraṇyaka (excluding Śukriya sections); the Āditya vrata to
the study of the Śukriya sections; the Aupanīṣada-vrata to the
study of the Upanīṣad-brāhmaṇa; the Jyeṣṭha-sāmika to the
study of the Ājya-dohas. The Kh. gr. II. 5. 17 ff. speaks of the
same vratas as Gobhila. Those who observe the Ādityavrata
wore one garment, did not allow anything to come between
them and the sun (except trees and the roofs of houses) and did
not descend into water more than knee-deep. The Śākvara
vrata was kept for one year, or for three or six or nine. Those
who observe this vrata study the Śākvari or Mahānāmni verses.
Vārtika⁹⁰¹ on Pāṇini V. 1. 94. (tadasya brahmacaryam) mentions
the Mahānāmni and teaches the derivation of Mahānāmnikam
(as the period of brahmacarya devoted to the vrata of the
Mahānāmni). There were certain peculiar observances for

901. The वार्तिक 1 and 2 on पा. V. 1. 94 are तदस्य ब्रह्मचर्यमिति महाना-
म्यादित्य उपसंख्यानम् । तद्वर्तिते च !; पतञ्जलि explains महानामनीनां ब्रह्मचर्यं
महानाम्निकम् । आदित्यव्रतिकम् । महानाम्नीश्वरति माहानाम्निकः । आदित्यव्रतिकः ।
.... महानाम्न्यो नामर्चो न च तत्त्वर्थन्ते व्रतं तस्मां चर्यते तत्साहचर्यात्ताच्छब्दं भविष्यति ।
महानाम्नीसहचरितं व्रतं महानाम्न्यो व्रतमिति । महाभाष्य II. p. 360.

this such as bathing thrice a day (Gobhila III. 2. 7-46, Kh. gr. II. 5. 23 ff.), wearing dark clothes, partaking of dark food, standing by day, sitting by night, not seeking shelter when it is raining, not crossing a river without bathing in it (the virtue of the Mahānāmniś is centred in water). After the student has kept his vow for one-third of the time prescribed, the teacher is to sing to the student the first *stotriya* of the Mahānāmniś⁹⁰² (viz. the three mantras, *vidā maghavan, ābhiṣṭvam, evāhi śakro*) and in the same way the two other *stotriyas* (each consisting of three mantras). They are to be sung to the student who has fasted, has closed his eyes, has dipped his hand in a brass vessel full of water in which all sorts of herbs are thrown and whose eyes are veiled with a new piece of cloth, the student is to keep silent and abstain from food for one day and night (or three), to stand in the forest till sunset (and return to the village in the night), should sacrifice with *mahāvyaḥṛtis*; look at fire, clarified butter, the sun, a brāhmaṇa, a bull, food, water and curds; then salute the teacher, break his silence and give a fee to the teacher and offer a mess of cooked food to Indra and give a dinner to the teacher and all co-students. The same rules apply to the Jyeṣṭhasāmika vrata (introductory to the study of the three Āyadohas⁹⁰³ viz. 'mūrdhānam divaḥ, tvām viśve, nābhim yajñānām). The student who undergoes this has to observe certain rules throughout his life viz. he cannot marry or have sexual intercourse with a śūdra woman, cannot eat bird's flesh, he should not restrict himself to one kind of corn or one country and should always wear two garments, should bathe in water drawn with a vessel and should not eat in an earthen pot or drink water from it.

The Baud. gr. III. 2. 4 ff says that there are vratas of one year each which precede the study of certain brāhmaṇa texts (of the Kṛṣṇa Yajurveda); they are *hotāraḥ*⁹⁰⁴, *śukriyas*, *upanīśadaḥ*,

902. महानामनीः are verses beginning with *विदा मघवन् विदा* which occur in ऐतरेय आरण्यक IV, in the जैमिनीयसंहिता of the सामवेद at II. 7 (ed. by Dr. Raghu Vira) and also in several other संहितासु.

903. The mantra मूर्धानं दिवः is at सामवेद I. 67 (and Rg. VI. 7. 1), त्वां विश्वे is at सामवेद II. 491 (and Rg. VI. 7. 4), नाभिं यज्ञानाम् is सामवेद 2. 492 (Rg. VI. 7. 2).

904. The होतारः or चतुर्होतारः are the mantras in Tai. Ār. III. 1-5 beginning with *चित्तिः शुक्लं चित्तमाज्यम्*.

godānam and sammitam and it describes them in detail. For want of space all these are passed over. The Samskāra-kaustubha (pp. 571-580) gives in some detail the procedure of the Mahā-nāmni vrata, Mahāvratā, Upaniṣadvrata and Godānavratā. It states that the Mahānāmni vrata is performed in the 13th year from birth and Godānavratā in the 16th. It appears, however, that these vratas gradually fell into desuetude and medieval writers often pass them over altogether or barely mention them and emphasize only the general observances of brahmacāriṇs viz. celibacy, begging for food, avoiding honey, wine and singing &c. For example, the Smṛtyarthasāra⁹⁰⁵ (p. 6) refers to Sāvitrivratā, then the vrata for Vedic study and then the Āraṇyaka vratas. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 52 (vedam vratāni vā pāram nītvā) explains 'vratam' as simply the duties of the student already enumerated by Yāj. (among which the specific vratas of Mahānāmni &c. do not figure).

If the student failed in observing the specific vratas, he had to perform prāyaścitta by undergoing the prājāpatya penance thrice or six times or twelve times. If the brahmacāri is guilty of failing in his daily duties of observing śauca and ācamana, of the performance of saṁdhyā prayer, of using darbha, of begging for food, of offering fuel stick to fire, of avoiding the touch of śūdras and the like, of wearing the cloth (for covering his private parts), the loin thread, the yajño-pavita, the girdle and the staff and deerskin, of not sleeping by day, of not holding an umbrella over his head or of not wearing shoes, or not putting on garlands, of avoiding luxurious bath, sandal paste, collyrium, of not sporting in water, of avoiding gambling, and addiction to dancing, singing and music, of not engaging in conversation with heretics, he had to undergo the penance of three kṛcchras (according to Baudhāyana) and to perform a *homa* with the vyāhṛtis separately and together (i. e. four oblations of clarified butter were to be offered).⁹⁰⁶ If he was guilty of other more serious lapses he

905. उपनयनादुपाकर्मान्तं सावित्रीव्रतं तत्संपूर्त्यर्थं विमत्संवन्धिवान्धवभोजनं शक्यता कार्पसम् । ततो वेदाव्ध्वजं तत्तत्स्वार्ण्यकव्रतानि प्रतिव्रतं वर्षेन च । व्रतान्ते भोजने भैक्ष्य-माहार्यम् । एतेषु व्रतेषु लोपे तारतम्येन त्रीन् षड् वा द्वादश वा प्राजापत्यांश्चरित्वा पुनश्च व्रतं प्रारभेत । ततोऽनन्तरं वोदगयने वा शुक्लपक्षे शुभेऽहनि स्वाध्यायं प्रारभेत । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 6.

906. बौधायनः । अत्र शौचाचमन-संध्यावन्दन-दर्भभिक्षाग्निकार्यराहित्य-शुद्धादि-स्पर्शनकौपीनकटिचूत्र-यज्ञोपवीतमेखलादण्डाजिनादित्याग-दिवास्वापच्छत्रधारण-पातुकाध्या-रोहणवनमालाधारणोद्धर्तनाल्लेपनाञ्जन-जलक्रीडाद्यतृप्त-गीतवाद्याद्यभिरतिपाषण्डादिसंभा-षणब्रह्मचारिव्रतलोपादिसकलदोषपरिहारार्थं ब्रह्मचारी कृच्छ्रत्रयं चरेत् । महाश्याहति-होमं च कुर्यात् । सं. प्र. p. 563.

had to undergo heavier penance. The most reprehensible act in a brahmacārīn was to have sexual intercourse with a woman. The Tai. Ār. II. 18 speaks of the *prāyaścitta* for such a brahmacārīn who is called *avakīrṇin*. Gaut. 25. 1-2 quotes the Tai. Ār. "they (the sages)⁹⁰⁷ say 'in how many (deities) the *avakīrṇin* enters; (the answer is) he enters the Maruts with his breath, Indra with his strength, Brhaspati with his spiritual eminence and fire with the rest (of his senses)'" and Gautama further provides that he should kindle fire at midnight on a new moon day and then offer two *ājya* oblations by way of penance with the two mantras '*kāmāva-*' and '*Kāmāvadrugdhosmi*' &c., place a fuel stick on fire, sprinkle water round the fire, offer the *yajñāvāstu* oblation (for which see Gobhila gr. I. 8. 26-29) and standing near the fire should worship fire thrice with the verse '*sam mā siñcantu*'. Baud. Dh. S. (IV. 2. 10-13) contains the same rules. Jaimini⁹⁰⁸ (VI. 8. 22) prescribes that ordinary (*laukika*) fire is to be used for the *paśu* to be sacrificed (viz. ass to *Nirṛti*, which is symbolic of the stupid lapse the student is guilty of) and Śābara quotes a Vedic passage that 'a brahmacārīn who has become *avakīrṇin* should sacrifice an ass to *Nirṛti*'. Āp. Dh. S. I. 9. 26. 8, Vas. 23. 1-3, Manu XI. 118-121, Yāj. III. 280 contain similar provisions (Vasiṣṭha allowing in the absence of an ass oblations of boiled rice with the mantras mentioned by Gautama). Manu XI. 122-123 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 49-50 prescribe that the brahmacārī so guilty should for one year wear the skin of the ass, should beg for food at seven houses announcing to them his lapse, should take food only once, should bathe thrice and then only he becomes pure. Manu II. 187 (= Viṣṇu Dh. S. 28. 52) prescribes similar penance for a brahmacārī who without being ill gives up begging for food and offering fuel to fire continuously for seven days. *Prāyaścitta* is prescribed for loss of *yajñopavīta* or its being torn, or its being polluted by impure things

907. तै. आ. II. 18 is 'कतिधावकीर्णीं प्रविशति चतुर्थेत्याहुर्ब्रह्मवादिनो मरुतः प्राणैरिन्द्रं बलेन बृहस्पतिं ब्रह्मवर्चसेनाग्निमेवेतरणं सर्वेण यो ब्रह्मचार्यवाकिरेदमावास्यायां रात्र्यामाग्निं प्रणीयोपसमाधाय द्विराज्यस्योपचातं जुहोति कामावकीर्णस्म्यवकीर्णोस्मि काम कामाय स्वाहा । कामाभिद्रुग्धोस्म्यवद्रुग्धोस्मि काम कामाय स्वाहेति । हुत्वा प्रयवाञ्जलिः क्वातिर्यङ्माग्निमभिमन्त्रयते सं मा सिञ्चन्तु मरुतः समिन्द्रः सं बृहस्पतिः । सं मायमग्निः सिञ्चतु प्रजया च धनेन चेति । त्रिरभिमन्त्रयते । वरो दक्षिणा ।

908. अवकीर्णिपशुश्च तद्वधाधानस्याप्राप्तकालत्वात् । जै. VI. 8. 22 ; अस्त्यवकीर्णिपशुः । ब्रह्मचार्यवकीर्णी नैर्कतं गर्दभमालभेतेति । तत्र संदेहः । किं तदर्थमाधानं कर्तव्यमुत लौकिकेण्यग्निषु तद्वर्तेतेति । ...तस्मादिदमपि कर्म लौकिकेण्विति । शबर.

like blood &c. It consists in offering homa and wearing a new one. Vide *Saṃskāra-ratnamālā* pp. 365-367 for details.

Naiṣṭhika brahmacārin (perpetual student).—

Brahmacārins were of two kinds, upakurvāṇa (the student who offered some return to the teacher, vide *Manu* II. 245, for the word upakurvita) and the *naiṣṭhika*⁹⁰⁹ (the student who remains so till his death). These two names occur in *Hārīta Dh. S.*, *Dakṣa I. 7* and in several *smṛtis*. The word 'naiṣṭhika' occurs in *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* 28. 46, *Yāj. I. 49*, *Veda-Vyāsa I. 41*. The idea of perpetual studenthood is very ancient. In the *Chāndogya*⁹¹⁰ *Up. II. 23. 1* we read that the third branch of dharma is the (status of a) student who stays with his teacher's family and who wears out his body to the end in the family of the teacher. *Gaut. III. 4-8*, *Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 4. 29*, *Hārīta Dh.*⁹¹¹ *S.*, *Vas. VII. 4-6*, *Manu II. 243, 244, 247-249*, and *Yāj. I. 49-50* say that if the student likes he may stay with his teacher till life lasts and should serve his *guru* and in the rest of the time repeat the *Veda*; that if the teacher be dead he may stay with and serve the teacher's son if he is worthy or the teacher's wife or he may worship the fire kindled by his deceased *guru*; he should thus wear out his body; he obtains the highest worlds of bliss and is not born again. He has to perform throughout his life the duties of offering fuel sticks, *Veda* study, begging for food, sleeping on the ground (not on a cot), and of self-restraint (*Brhaspati* quoted in *Sm. C. I. p. 62*).

According to *Viṣṇu* quoted in *Aparārka* (p. 72) and the *Sm. C.*⁹¹² (I. p. 63) quoting the *Samgraha* persons who are

909. निष्ठा means 'end or death' and नैष्ठिक is derived by the *Mit.* on *Yāj. I. 49* as 'आत्मानं निष्ठां उत्क्रान्तिकालं नयतीति नैष्ठिकः'.

910. त्रयो धर्मस्कन्धा यज्ञोऽध्ययनं दानमिति प्रथमस्तप एव द्वितीयो ब्रह्मचार्याचार्य-कुलवासी तृतीयोऽत्यन्तमात्मानमाचार्यकुलेऽवसादयन् सर्व एते पुण्यलोका भवन्ति ब्रह्मसंस्थोऽ-मृतत्वमेति । छान्दोग्य उप. II. 23. 1. This is quoted by *विश्वरूप* on *या. I. 49-50*. This *Up.* passage is the basis of *Vedānta-sūtra* III. 4. 18-20; vide also *ibid* III. 4. 49.

911. द्विविधो ब्रह्मचारी उपकुर्वाणो नैष्ठिकश्च । तयोरुपकुर्वाणको व्याख्यातः । निष्ठां चेद्वच्छेदाशरीरनिपातादुरावासीत । हारीत quoted by *अपरार्क* p. 71. ब्रह्मचार्याचार्य परिचरेदाशरीरविमोक्षणात् । आचार्ये च मेते अग्निं परिचरेत् । विज्ञायते ह्यग्निराचार्यस्तवेति । बसिष्ठ VII. 4-6. The words 'अग्निराचार्यस्तव' occur in the *उपनयन* ritual; vide *पास्क* II. 2.

912. कुञ्जवामनजात्यन्धकृषिपङ्कजार्तरोगिणाम् । व्रतचर्या भवेत्तेषां यावज्जीवमनंशतः ॥ *विष्णु* quoted in *अपरार्क* p. 72 and *स्मृतिच.* I. p. 63; पङ्कजादीनामनंशत्वादसाम-र्थ्याच्च शास्त्रतः । नियतं नैष्ठिकत्वं स्यात्कर्मस्ववधिकारतः ॥ *संग्रह* quoted by *स्मृतिच.* I. p. 63.

dwarfs, ill-formed, congenitally blind, impotent, cripples and those suffering from incurable diseases should become perpetual students, as they are not entitled to perform the Vedic rites and are not entitled to inherit. We saw above that Kumārīlabhaṭṭa accepted this view (vide note 852a). But this does not mean that the blind and other partially defective people could not marry at all. They could marry if they had sufficient wealth. For example, Dhṛtarāṣṭra, though congenitally blind, married and had sons. Aparārka (p. 72), the Sm. C., the Madanapārijāta (p. 111), the Par. M. (I. 2. p. 51 ff) and others say that perpetual student-hood is not restricted only to the blind and the cripple, but it may be resorted to by even able-bodied men at their choice (vide Manu II. 243-44).

Atri (VIII. 16) says⁹¹³ that if a person undertakes to be a perpetual student, but falls from that ideal, there is no prāyaścitta for that lapse. Some interpret this as applying to one who becomes a sannyāsin and then gives up that mode of life; while others like the Saṃskāra-prakāśa (p. 564) interpret it as meaning that the prāyaścitta is double of what the upakurvāṇa would have to undergo.

Patitasāvitrika (those for whom there has been no upanayana and therefore no instruction in Gāyatrī and who are therefore sinful and outside the pale of Aryan society). The grhya and dharma sūtras are agreed that the time for upanayana has not passed till the 16th, 22nd and the 24th year in the case of brāhmanas, ksatriyas and vaiśyas respectively, but that after these years are past without upanayana taking place they become incompetent thereafter for learning the Sāvitrī (the sacred Gāyatrī verse). Vide Āśv. gr. I. 19, 5-7, Baud. gr. III. 13. 5-6, Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 22, Vas. XI. 71-75, Manu II. 38-39, Yāj. I. 37-38. Such persons are then called patitasāvitrika or sāvitrīpatita and also vrātya (Manu II. 39 and Yāj. I. 38 call them so). These works⁹¹⁴ also declare that the consequences of this are that no upanayana is to be thereafter performed for them, they are not to be taught the Veda, nor is any one to officiate at

913. आरूढो नैष्टिकं धर्मं यस्तु प्रच्यवते द्विजः। प्रायश्चित्तं न पश्यामि येन ह्युपयति कर्मणा ॥ अत्रि VIII. 16; the संस्कारप्रकाश p. 564 ascribes a very similar verse to शाततप.

914. आ षोडशाद् ब्राह्मणस्यानवतः कालः। आ द्वाविंशत्क्षत्रियस्य आ चतुर्विंशद्वैश्यस्य। अत ऊर्ध्वं पतितसावित्रिका भवन्ति। नैनातुपनयेन्नाध्यापयेत् याजयेन्नैमिष्यवहरेयुः। आय. श्रु. I. 19. 5-7; बौ. श्रु. (reads विवहरेयुः for व्यवहरेयुः), वसिष्ठ reads विवाह-येयुः for व्यवहरेयुः; पार. श्रु. II. 5 has almost the same words.

their sacrifices and there is to be no social intercourse with them (i. e. no marriage takes place with them). Āp. Dh. S. (I. 1. 1. 24-27) prescribes that after the 16th or 24th year, the person should undergo the rules of student-hood two months just as those who meant to study the three Vedas and whose upanayana has been performed observe (viz. begging for food &c.), then his upanayana should be performed, then for one year he should bathe (thrice if possible) every day and then he should be taught the Veda. This is a somewhat easy penance. But others prescribe heavier penalties. Vas. Dh. S. XI. 76-79 and the Vaik. smārta II. 3 prescribe that one who is *patitasāvitrika* should either perform the Uddālaka vrata or should take a bath along with the performer of an Aśvamedha sacrifice or should perform the Vratyastoma sacrifice. Both Vasiṣṭha⁹¹⁵ and the Vaik. smārta explain that the Uddālaka vrata consists in subsisting on barley gruel for two months, for one month on milk, for half a month on āmiksā (the whey that arises by pouring curds in hot milk), for eight days on ghee, for six days on alms obtained without begging, for three days on water and in observing a total fast for one whole day. The Sm. C. (I. p. 28) says that this vrata is so called because it was promulgated by Uddālaka. Manu XI. 191 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 54. 26 prescribe a mild prāyścitta for *patitasāvitrikas*, viz. three prājāpatya⁹¹⁶ penances; while Yāj. I. 38, Baud. gr. III. 13. 7, Veda-Vyāsa I. 21 and several others prescribe only the Vratyastoma for those who are *patitasāvitrikas*. Viśvarūpa⁹¹⁷ (on Yāj. III. 262) tries to reconcile these contradictions by saying that the easy penance prescribed by Manu applies to a brāhmaṇa whose upanayana is not performed before the 16th year, but whose upanayana is sought to be performed before the 22nd year, while the Vratyastoma is to be performed for him whose upanayana is not

915. पातितसावित्रीक उद्दालकव्रतं चरेत् । द्वौ मासौ यावत्केन वर्तयेन्मासं पयसार्धमास-
नामिक्षयाष्टरात्रं घृतेन षड्रात्रमयाचितेन त्रिरात्रमम्भक्षोद्दोरात्रमुपवसेत् । अश्वमेधावभुयं
गच्छेत् । ब्राह्म्यस्तीमेन वा यजेत् । वसिष्ठ XI. 76-79.

916. For the prājāpatya vide मनु XI. 211 and या. III. 320. It lasts for 12 days and consists in taking only one morning meal for 3 days, only one meal in the evening for three days, subsisting on alms obtained without begging for three days and total fast for three days.

917. परतस्तु षोडशाद्वर्षास्मानव येषां द्विजानां चेदिति । एतदा द्वाविंशतेर्वर्षा-
दुपनीतस्य ब्राह्मणस्य यदि त्वाद्यादुपनयनकालादारम्याष्टाचत्वारिंशद् वर्षाणि नोपनी-
तस्ततोयं ब्राह्म्यस्तीमेन । विश्वरूप on या. III. 262.

performed for forty-eight years from the first prescribed period (viz. 8th year, 11th year or 12th). The Mit. on Yāj. III. 262 also tries to introduce vyavasthā (order) in the contradictory dicta of the smṛtis. According to Gaut. 21. 11, Yāj. III. 234 and others *vrāṇatā* (being *patitasāvitrika*) is only an *upapātaka* and Manu XI. 117 prescribes an easy penance for all *upapātakas*.

Āp. Dh. S.⁹¹⁸ says 'if a person's father and grandfather also had not the upanayana performed for them, then they (i.e. the three generations) are called slayers of *brahma* (holy prayers or lore); people should have no intercourse with them, should not take their food nor should enter into marriage alliances with them; but if they desire then penance should be administered to them'. It then prescribes that they have to perform the penance (observing rules of student-hood) one year for each generation (that had not the upanayana performed), then there is upanayana and then they have to bathe (thrice or once) every day for a year with certain mantras viz. the seven Pāvamāni verses beginning with 'yad anti yacca dūrake' (Rg. IX. 67. 21-27), with the Yajus pavitra (Tai. S. I. 2. 1. 1=Rg. X. 17. 10), with the *sāmapavitra* and with the *mantra* called Āngirasa (Rg. IV. 40. 5) or one may pour water only with the *vyāhrtis*⁹¹⁹. After all this is done, one may be taught the Veda. Āp. Dh. S. goes further (I. 1. 2. 5-10) and says 'if the generations⁹²⁰ beginning with the great-grandfather had not the upanayana performed on them, they are called the cemetery and that if there is desire they may observe the rules of student-hood for twelve years, then

918. अथ यस्य पिता पितामह इत्यनुपेतौ स्यातां ते ब्रह्महंसंस्तुताः । तेषामभ्यागमनं भोजनं विवाहमिति वर्जयेत् । तेषामिच्छतां प्रायश्चित्तम् । यथा प्रथमेऽतिक्रमे ऋतुरेवं संवत्सरः । अथोपनयनम् । तत उदकोपस्पर्शनम् । प्रतिपुरुषं संख्याय संवत्सरान्यावन्तोऽनुपेताः स्तुः । सप्तभिः पावमानीभिर्यदन्ति यत्र दूरक इत्येताभिर्यजुष्वित्रेण सामपवित्रेणाङ्गिरसेनेति । अपि वा स्याद्वृत्तिभिरेव । अथाध्यायः । आप. ध. I. 1. 1. 28-I. 1. 2. 1-4. पावमानी verses are those that are addressed to Soma and according to some they are all the verses of the 9th maṇḍala of the R̥gveda beginning with 'svādiṣṭhayaṁ madiṣṭhayaṁ' (vide Haradatta on Gaut. 19. 12 and Medhātithi on Manu V. 83). The यजुष्वित्र is the मन्त्र 'आपोऽस्मान्मातरः स्तुन्धन्तु'; सामपवित्र is the Sāman beginning with 'kayā nāsoitra ābhuvat' which is Rg. IV. 31. 1 and occurs in all other Samhitās and the Āngirasa mantra is 'Hamsaḥ śuciśad' (Rg. IV. 40. 5).

919. Haradatta explains that one is to pour water over one's head with the folded hands after repeating these mantras.

920. The generations will be four प्रपितामह, पितामह, पिता and the man himself.

upanayana may be performed and then the person so desirous of upanayana will have to bathe with the Pāvamāni and other verses (as stated above), then instruction in the duties of the householder may be imparted to him (i. e. to the 4th); he cannot, however, be taught the Veda; but his son may have the saṁskāra performed as in the case of one who is himself *patitasāvitrika* and then his son will be one like other āryas'. Haradatta⁹²¹ remarks that Āp. does not declare the prāyaścitta for him whose great-grandfather's father also was without upanayana, but that those who know the dharmasāstra should find out a proper prāyaścitta even in such cases. It is clear that Āp. contemplates cases where for three generations there had been no upanayana and the fourth generation also had not the upanayana performed at the right time and desired to have it performed for him. Pār. gives a brief rule 'when three generations are *patitasāvitrika*, their offspring (i. e. the fourth generation) is excluded from the sacrament of upanayana and he cannot be taught the Veda.'⁹²² So Pār. is more restrictive than Āpastamba.

There is a famous historical example of the application of these rules. Gāgābhaṭṭa, a profound scholar of Benares, officiated at the coronation of Shivaji, the founder of the Maratha Empire, in 1674 and performed the upanayana of Shivaji before the coronation, when Shivaji was about 45 years old and had even two sons. Some eminent scholars like the late Mr. Justice Telang⁹²³ have found fault with Gāgābhaṭṭa

921. यस्य प्रपितामहस्य पितुरारभ्य नाहुस्मर्यत उपनयनं तत्र प्रायश्चित्तं नोक्तम् । धर्मज्ञैरुहितव्यम् । एवं ततः पूर्वेष्वपि । हरदत्त on आप. घ. 1. 1. 2. 10.

922. त्रिपुरुषं पतितसावित्रीकाणामपत्येऽसंस्कारो नाध्यापनं च । पार. सू. II. 5.

923. In 'Gleanings from Maratha Chronicles' appended to the late Mr. Justice Ranade's 'Rise of the Maratha Power', Mr. Justice Telang observes (p. 286) 'they had also to strain a point, when as a preliminary to the installation, the thread ceremony essential for a kṣatriya was performed on Shivaji at a time when he was forty-six or fifty years old and had already had two sons, an irregularity which also was, we are told, expressly assented to by all the brāhmanas and pandits. How the brāhmanas and pandits worked their way to this decision, none of our authorities state'; and further on (p. 288) he casts undeserved aspersions 'taking the whole evidence together it looks like a case of a more or less deliberate manipulation of facts and religious rites in aid of a foregone conclusion adopted for a purely political purpose'. Mr. Justice Telang writes rather like a judge than like a scholar or a

and the other brāhmaṇas of that time; but these scholars are wrong and Gāgābhaṭṭa had behind him weighty and ancient authorities like Āp., Pāraskara, Viśvarūpa and Haradatta as shown above.

The Vaik. sūtra (II. 37) adds that in the case of the man who is himself *patitasāvitṛika* the saṃskāras (from Garbhādhāna) have to be again performed (with Vedic mantras) and then the upanayana is performed.

One very important question that exercised the minds of some writers in medieval times was whether kṣatriyas and vaiśyas existed in the kali age. In some of the purāṇas it is said in a prophetic vein that Mahāpadma Nanda will destroy the kṣatriyas and thereafter rulers will be of the śūdra caste. For example, the Viṣṇupurāṇa IV. 23. 4-5 says ' Mahāpadma Nanda, the son of Mahānandi, born of a śūdra woman would be extremely greedy (of power) and will destroy the whole kṣatriya race as if he were another Paraśurāma; thereafter śūdras will be kings'. The Matsya 272. 18-19 and the Bhāgavata-purāṇa XII. 1. 6-9 declare the same prophecies. The Viṣṇupurāṇa IV. 24. 44 remarks that Devāpi, descendant of Pūru, and Manu, descendant of Ikṣvāku, stay in

(Continued from last page)

historian. The judge has to give a decision on the evidence adduced by the parties before him; it is no part of his business to collect evidence for himself. But the role of a historian is entirely different. He must not only try to read all evidence available till the time he writes but he must himself ferret out all possible evidence and make searches in places where evidence is likely to be found. Above all he must be cautious in his condemnations of persons long dead on the strength of the meagre evidence read by him. Mr. Telang wrote the paper above referred to in 1892, but long before that Pāraskara (in 1886) and Āpastamba (in 1885) had been translated and published in ' the Sacred Books of the East series.' But he, though a great judge and also a great Sanskrit scholar, nowhere shows that he cared to see whether *śāstric* rules allowed the upanayana of a man himself at any age whatever (after some penance). If he had seen those rules he would not have unjustly taken to task pandits that flourished two hundred years before him and attributed irregular motives to them. It does not appear that he made any search in the archives of the Udaipur Durbar to see how Shivaji traced his descent from the Sisodia clan, nor does it appear that he even went to Mudhol and other places in Mahārāṣṭra where ancient Maratha families have been holding sway for centuries. The papers recently published from the records of the Mudhol State amply establish Shivaji's claim to a Rajput lineage.

Kalāpagrāma, are endowed with great yogic powers, will revive the kṣatriya race when the kṛta age will start again after the present kali age comes to an end and that some kṣatriyas exist on the earth like seed even in the kali age. Vāyu (vol. I. 32. 39-40), Matsya (273. 56-58) have similar verses. Relying on such passages some medieval writers stated that there were no kṣatriyas in their times. The Śuddhitattva^{923a} of Raghunandana (p. 268) after quoting the Viṣṇupurāṇa IV. 23. 4 and Manu X. 43 declares that kṣatriyas existed till Mahānandī, that the so-called kṣatriyas of his day were śūdras and that similarly there were no vaiśyas also. In the Śūdra-Kamalākara occurs this verse 'The varṇas are brāhmaṇas, kṣatriyas, vaiśyas and śūdras, the first three being twice-born; all these exist in the several yugas; but in the kali age only the first and the last remain'. Nāgeśabhaṭṭa (first half of 18th century^{923b}) in his Vrātyatāprāyaścittanirṇaya (Chaukhamba Series) examines all the relevant Purāṇa passages and states as his conclusion that real kṣatriyas do not exist and so those, in whose families no upanayana had been performed for ten or twenty generations, are not kṣatriyas even though they rule over kingdoms and no upanayana can be performed for such kings. It must be stated that such views, though held by some rigidly orthodox writers of extreme views, were not shared by most writers. All the smṛtis speak of the duties of the four varṇas even in the kali age. Parāśara-smṛti which is said to be the smṛti *par excellence* for the kali age (as stated in I. 24) does so. Almost all nibandha-kāras (authors of digests and commentaries) discuss the privileges and duties of all varṇas. The author of the Mitākṣarā, who is rightly described as the best of all nibandha-kāras, nowhere says that kṣatriyas do not exist in the kali age. Numerous kings claimed to be descended from the Sun and the Moon. Hemādri in his Caturvargacintāmaṇi states that his patron was a scion of Somavaṃśa (vide H. Dh. vol. I p. 356 for quotations). The princes of Rajputana and Central India claimed to have sprung from the Agnikuṇḍa on Mount Abu, viz. of the

923 a. इदानीन्तनक्षत्रियाणामपि शूद्रत्वमाह मनुः। शनकैस्तु ... ब्राह्मणादर्शनेन च। अत एव विष्णुपुराणम्। महानन्दिस्तुः शूद्रागर्भोद्भवोऽतिलब्धो महापद्मो नन्दः परशुराम इवापरोखिलक्षत्रियान्तकारी भविता ततः प्रभृति शूद्रा भूपाला भविष्यन्ति। इति। तेन महानन्दिपर्यन्तं क्षत्रिय आसीत्। एवं च क्रियालोपाद्वैश्यानामपि तथा। शुद्धितत्त्व p. 268.

923 b. अथ कलादब्राह्मणत्वे सति शस्त्रग्रहणप्रजापालनमात्रेण क्षत्रियसादृश्येन क्षत्रियपदव्यवहार्याणां दशविंशतिपुरुषपर्यन्तमस्मर्यमाणोपनयनानां तदग्रेषु तादृशानुष्ठाननयनसंस्कारो भवति न वेति संदेहे निर्णयः क्रियते। तत्र नैव भवतीति निर्णयः। क्षत्रियसादृश्येन तथा व्यवहारेषु मुख्यक्षत्रियत्वाभावात्। ब्राह्मणप्रायश्चित्तनिर्णय p. 1.

four clans of Chohan, Parmar (or Paramāra), Solanki (or Cālukya), Padihar (or Pratihāra). Vide Tod's Rajasthan (Madras ed. of 1873) vol. I chap. VII pp. 82 ff. This theory of the Agnikulas is at least as old as 1000 A. D., since it is referred to in several inscriptions of the 11th century A. D. Vide the Vasantagadh Inscription of Paramāra Pūrṇapāla dated *saṃ.* 1099 (1042-43 A. D.) in E. I. vol. IX p. 10 and the inscription of Cāmūṇḍarāja dated *saṃ.* 1136 (1079-1080 A. D.) in E. I. vol. XIV. p. 295.

This question is now largely of academic interest. Whether a person is a śūdra or a member of the regenerate classes assumes great importance in adoption, inheritance and succession. Therefore the question, whether kṣatriyas exist in modern times, came before the British Indian courts over a hundred years ago. In *Chouturya Run Murdun Syn v. Sahub Purhulad Syn* 7 Moore's Indian Appeals 18 this question was argued and the Privy Council citing the authorities on both sides set the question at rest by remarking (p. 46) 'Their Lordships have nevertheless no doubt that the existence of the Khatri caste as one of the regenerate tribes is fully recognised throughout India and also that Rajputs in central India.....are considered to be of that class..... The courts in all cases assume that the four great classes remain'. The only question that is now permissible is whether a particular caste belongs to the regenerate classes or to the śūdra class. On this the courts often differ. Vide p. 75 under *Kāyastha*. In *Maharaja of Kolhapur v. Sundaram Ayyar* 48 Mad. 1 it was held (in an exhaustive judgment extending over 229 pages) that the Tanjore Maratha princes descended from Venkaji, the step-brother of the founder of the Maratha Empire, were śūdras and not kṣatriyas. The learned judges (at p. 51) quote Telang's *dictum* criticized by me above (note 923), but refrain from expressing any decided opinion about the claim of Shivaji to be of kṣatriya descent. In *Subrao v Radha* 52 Bom. 497 it was held after a careful examination of authorities that the Marathas of Mahārāṣṭra are sub-divided into three groups, viz. (1) the five families, (2) the ninety-six families and (3) the rest and that the first two groups are kṣatriyas. It was further held that the tests to be applied in determining the class (varṇa) of a particular caste are three viz. the consciousness of the caste itself, the acceptance of that consciousness by other castes, and lastly its customs and usages.

We have already seen (in note 118) how even in the Vedic age there were non-Aryan tribes like the Kīrātas, Andhras, Pulin-

das, Mūtibas, that were described as *dasyus* by the Ait. Br.. One word that is of striking importance is *mleccha*. The Śat. Br. (III. 2. 1. 23-24, S. B. E. vol. 26 p. 32) states that the asuras were defeated because they spoke an incorrect and corrupt dialect and that a brāhmaṇa should not, therefore, utter such a corrupt^{923c} speech and so should not become a *mleccha* and an *asura*. Gaut. IX. 17 enjoins that one should not speak with *mlecchas*, impure or irreligious persons and Haradatta explains that *mlecchas* are the inhabitants of Ceylon and similar countries where there is no system of varṇas and āśramas. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 64. 15 is to the same effect. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 84. 1-2 and Śaṅkha 14. 30 prescribe that one should not perform śrāddha in a *mleccha* country nor should one visit such a country (except on a pilgrimage). Viṣṇu Dh. S. 84. 4 states that that country where the system of the four varṇas is not in vogue is *mleccha* territory and Āryāvarta is beyond it, while Manu II. 23 states that the *mleccha* country is beyond Āryāvarta which land is fit for sacrifices and in which the black deer wanders naturally. Viśva-rūpa on Yāj. I. 15 quotes Bharadvāja to the effect 'one should not study the language of the *mlecchas*, for it is declared (in the Brāhmaṇas) that a corrupt word is indeed *mleccha*'. Vas. Dh. S. VI. 41 also enjoins that one should not learn the *mleccha* dialect. Manu X. 43-44 knew that many of the tribes called Puṇḍrakas, Yavanas, Śakas spoke *mleccha* languages and also the language of the Āryas (*mlecchavācāś-cāryavācaḥ sarve te dasyavaḥ smṛtāḥ*). In Parāśara IX. 36 *mlecchas* are referred to as eaters of cow's flesh. That the *mlecchas* had affected the Sanskrit language by lending to it certain words follows from the discussion in Jaimini I. 3. 10 whether words like *pika* (a cuckoo), *nema* (half), *sata* (a wooden vessel), *tāmarasa* (a red lotus) are to be understood in the sense in which *mlecchas* use them or certain meanings are to be assigned to them by deriving them from some root according to the rules of grammar, Nirukta and Nighaṇṭu and Jaimini's conclusion is that they are to be understood in the same sense in which *mlecchas* employ them^{923d}. Pāṇini derives the word *yavanāni*

923 c. तेऽसुरा आत्तवचसो हेऽलघो हेऽलव इति वदन्तः परावभूदुः । तत्रैतामपि वाचमुदुः । उपजिज्ञास्यां स म्लेच्छस्तस्मात्त ब्राह्मणो म्लेच्छेदसुर्या ह्येषा वाक् । शतपथ III. 2. 1. 23-24.

923 d. अथ याज्ञवल्क्यानार्या न कस्मिंश्चिदर्थे आचरन्ति म्लेच्छास्तु कस्मिंश्चिदर्थमुच्यते यथा पिकनेमसततामरसादिशब्दास्तेषु सन्देहः । किं निगमनिरुक्तव्याकरणवशेन धातुतोर्थः कल्पयितव्य उत यत्र म्लेच्छा आचरन्ति स शब्दार्थ इति । शबर on जै. I. 3. 10.

and Patañjali speaks of the siege of Śāketa and Madhyamikā by the Yavana by whom scholars generally understand Menander. Aśoka in his Rock Edict No. 13 refers to Yona kings and it appears from his reference that brāhmaṇas and śramaṇas were not found in the Yona country. A Yavanarāja Tuṣāspa is mentioned as the governor of Kathiawar under Aśoka in the inscription of Rudradāman at Junagadh (E. I. vol. VIII. at p. 43). In the Prakrit Inscriptions the Yavanas are referred to as Yavana (vide E. I. vol. VII. pp. 53-55 at Karle No. 7 and 10) or Yona or Yonaka (E. I. VIII. 90 Nasik cave No. 18). In Kharavela's inscription also the form is Yavana (E. I. 20 p. 79). In the Mahābhārata the words Yavana and Śaka occur very frequently. Vide notes above on these words. In the Dronaparva 119. 45-46 Yavana, Kamboja, Śaka, Śabara, Kirāta and Barbara are mentioned as one group fighting against Sātyaki. In Droṇa 119. 47-48 they are referred to as dasyus and as having long and flowing beards. In the Striparva 22. 11 Jayadratha is said to have had Kamboja and Yavana women in his harem. The word Yavana is generally taken as referring to the Greeks. But there are dissenting voices also. Dr. Otto Stein in 'Indian Culture' denies that the word ever means Greeks and Dr. Tarn in his recent work on 'Greeks in Bactria and India' p. 254 argues that the Yavanas in the Nasik inscriptions were not Greeks but only Indian citizens of a Greek *polis*. The Śāntiparva 65. 17-22 prescribes for Yavanas, Śakas and similar tribes only the duties of obedience to parents and attendance on teachers and tending cattle and looking after agriculture, dedication of wells and making gifts to dvijas, *ahimsā*, *satya*, absence of fury, *śauca*, *adroha*, maintenance of wife and child. Atri VII. 2 puts the receiving of gifts from or eating the food of or having sexual intercourse with the women of Śakas, Yavanas, Kambojas, Bāhlikas, Khasas, Draviḍas on the same level with doing the same things with reference to naṭa, nartaka, śvapāka &c. Aparārka p. 923 quotes Vṛddha-Yājñavalkya to the effect that the touch of Mlecchas is on the same level with that of cāṇḍāla, Bhilla and Pārasika.

Prof. D. R. Bhandarkar in a very learned and scholarly paper in Indian Antiquary vol. 40 pp. 7-37 endeavours to establish that many non-Aryan persons belonging to tribes like the Yavanas, the Śakas became absorbed in the general mass of Hindu society, that even several of the princely families such as those of the Guhilots were not of pure Aryan descent and that the pride of

the purity of caste shown by many castes is not justified by history. He, therefore, appeals to modern Indians to forget all caste-exclusiveness and pride. But this appeal will be in vain. Merely showing that non-Aryan elements were absorbed in the body of the Aryan community several thousands or hundreds of years ago will not probably lessen that pride. Such people may retort that, whatever may have happened centuries ago, for about a thousand years there has been no such fusion. Therefore the appeal should rather be based on the futility of caste exclusiveness in the 20th century when owing to the exigencies of the times any one can pursue any occupation, when a sense of one nation and one people is absolutely necessary for securing to Indians their proper place in the society of nations.

The question of the re-conversion or re-entry of people converted to other faiths willingly or against their wishes will be briefly dealt with immediately below.

A few words may first be said about the *Vrātyastoma*. The *Tāndya-Mahābrāhmaṇa* (or the *Pañca-vimśa*, as it is called from the number of *Adhyāyas*) describes four *vrātyastomas* in chap. 17. 1-4 (*khaṇḍas*). The meaning of many words and passages in that chapter of the *brāhmaṇa* is uncertain and somewhat cryptic. The four *vrātyastomas* were *ekāhas* (i. e. sacrifices taking one day only). *Tāndya* 17. 1. 1 begins with the story that when the gods went to the heavenly world some dependents of theirs who lived the *vrātya* life were left behind on the earth. Then through the favour of the gods the dependents got at the hands of Maruts the *Ṣoḍaśastoma* (containing 16 stotras) and the metre (viz. *anuṣṭubh*) and then the dependents secured heaven. The *Ṣoḍaśastoma* is employed in each of the four *vrātyastomas*, the first of which (17. 1) is meant for all *vrātyas*, the 2nd is meant for those who are *abhiśasta* (who are wicked or guilty of heavy sins and so censured) and lead a *vrātya* life, the third for those who are youngest and lead a *vrātya* life, and the fourth who are very old and yet lead a *vrātya* life. Some of the passages convey a tolerably clear idea of what the *vrātyas* were like. Those who⁹²⁴ lead the *vrātya* life are base and are reduced to a baser state, since they do not observe student-hood (*brahmacharya*) nor do they till the soil nor engage in trade. It is by the *Ṣoḍaśastoma* that they

924. हीना वा एते हीयन्ते ये व्रात्यां प्रवसन्ति न हि ब्रह्मचर्यं चरन्ति न कृषिं न वणिग्ग्यां षोडशो वा एतस्स्तोमः समाप्तमर्हति ॥ ताण्ड्य 17. 1. 2.

can attain this (superior status). This shows that the vrātyas did not perform upanayana and did not study the Veda, nor did they do even what vaiśyas do. Another passage says 'those swallow poison who eat food of the common people as food fit for brāhmanas, [who call good words bad, who strike with a stick him who does not deserve to be beaten (or punished), who, though not initiated, speak the speech of the initiated. The Śoḍaśastoma has the power to remove the guilt of these. That (in this rite) there are four Śoḍaśastomas, thereby they are freed from guilt.'⁹²⁵ This passage indicates that the vrātyas spoke the same language as the orthodox people, but were rough in their ways and lax as regards the food they partook of. They were thus outside the pale of orthodox Aryan society and they were brought within it by the Vrātyastoma described in the Tāṇḍya. The origin of the word vrātya is lost in the mists of antiquity. The 15th Kāṇḍa of the Atharvaveda glorifies the vrātya and identifies him with the Creator and Supreme Being. The word is probably derived from *vrāta* (group) and means 'he who belongs to or moves in a group.' It is possible to derive the word from *vrata*. Originally vrātyas appear to have been groups of people who spoke the same language as orthodox āryas, but did not follow their discipline and habits. The word *vrāta* occurs in Rg. I. 163. 8, IIL 26. 6, V. 53. 11. Sāyaṇa also perceived the difficulty raised by the glorification of the vrātya in the Atharvaveda 15. 1. 1 and his note is interesting, since he says that the description does not apply to all vrātyas, but only to some very powerful, universally respected and holy vrātya who was, however, not in the good books of the brāhmanas that were solely devoted to their own rites and sacrifices. Kātyāyanaśrauta XXII. 4. 1-28 and Āp. Śrauta XXII. 5. 4-14 also deal with Vrātyastoma. Kātyāyana describes the four vrātyastomas and adds⁹²⁶ 'by performing the vrātyastoma sacrifice, they should cease to be vrātyas and become eligible for social intercourse with the orthodox āryas.' The Pār. gr. II. 5 quotes the last sūtra of Kātyāyana with the

925. गरगिरो वा एते ये ब्राह्मणं जन्यमसमदन्त्यदुरुक्तवाक्यं दुरुक्तमाहुरदण्डं दण्डेन हन्तश्चरन्त्यदीक्षिता दीक्षितवाचं वदन्ति षोडशो वा एतेषां स्तोमः पाप्मानं निर्हन्तुमर्हति यदेते चत्वारः षोडशा भवन्ति तेन पाप्मनोऽधिनिर्मुच्यन्ते । ताण्ड्य 17. 1. 9. सायण explains ब्राह्मणभोज्यं जन्यं जनपदसंबन्धि असमदन्ति ब्राह्मणार्थपरिकल्पितमसं बलात्कारेण सुखत इत्यर्थः ॥.

926. व्रात्यस्तोमेनेष्टु व्रात्यभावाद्द्विस्तेयुः । व्यवहार्या भवन्ति । कात्या० श्रौतसूत्र XXII. 4. 27-28.

remark "for such persons he who desires to have the sacrament (samskāra of upanayana) performed on them should perform the sacrifice of vrātyastoma and then may indeed study the Veda for a text says 'they become eligible for (social) intercourse'." 927

In the Vrātyatā-sūddhisamgraha provision is made ⁹²⁸ for the purification of vrātyas even after twelve generations (vide pp. 7 and 22-24) and that work adds (p. 42) that the Vrātyastoma like the penance for an avakīrṇin is to be performed in the ordinary fire (laukika agni). It also suggests easy substitutes for the lengthy and trying penance of twelve years prescribed by Āp.

Hinduism has not been an avowedly proselytizing religion. In theory it could not be so. For about two thousand years the caste system has reigned supreme and no one can in theory be admitted to the Hindu fold who is not born in it. A Hindu may lose caste, be excommunicated and driven out of the fold of Hinduism, if he be guilty of very serious lapses and refuses to undergo the prāyaścittas prescribed by the smṛtis. Gaut. 20. 15 states that he who was guilty of a misdeed for which death was prescribed as a penance became purified only by dying. But Gaut. himself prescribed death (21. 7) as penance only for the sins of brāhmaṇa-murder, drinking spirituous liquor and incest. Even as regards these three, lesser penances were prescribed by some smṛtis as alternatives (e. g. vide Manu XI. 72, 74-8, 92, 108). When the sinner performed the prāyaścitta prescribed by the śāstras, he was to be welcomed by his relatives, who took a bath along with him in a holy river or the like and threw therein an unused jar filled with water; they were not to find fault with him and were to completely associate with him in all ways (Manu XI. 186-187, Yāj. III. 295, Vas. 15, 20, Gaut. 20. 10-14). Vas. 15. 17 says that those who were *patita* were to be re-admitted to all social

927. तेषां संस्कारेषु ब्राह्मण्यस्तोमेनेष्टा काममधीयीरन् व्यवहार्या भवन्तीति वचनात् । पारस्कर गृ. II. 5.

928. एवं लौकिकाग्निष्वेवावकीर्णिनिषादस्थपतिवद् ब्राह्मण्यस्तोमस्य स्मार्तस्य सावित्रीपत्ने प्रवर्तनमुचितम् । ब्राह्मण्यताशुद्धिसंग्रह p. 42 (Chaukhamba series); द्वादशवर्ष-ब्रह्मचर्यव्रतादिनातिक्रान्तादालस्यादिना वा सङ्कटदेवैकस्मिन्दिने पावमान्यादिभिः स्नानं करोति चेत्तर्हि तद्धिनमारभ्यैव स्मार्तधर्मपरिग्रहाधिकारः । ... कालातिक्रमे बहुकालरूपे यावक-प्रत्याज्ञाय चतुर्दशप्राजापत्यानि ग्राह्याणि । पितृपितामहब्राह्मण्यतायां चतुर्दश प्राजापत्यान्येव भवेयुः कालदैर्घ्यनैयत्यादित्यनुसंधेयम् । ब्राह्मण्यताशुद्धिसंग्रह p. 23.

intercourse when they performed the prescribed penances (patitānām tu caritavratānām pratyuddhārah). But if the sinner refused to undergo the prescribed prāyaścitta, then a peculiar procedure called ghaṭasphoṭa (breaking a jar) was prescribed. In such a case the sinner's relatives (sapindas) made a slave girl whose face was turned to the south thrust aside with her foot an earthen jar full of water so that all water flowed out of it, then the relatives were to observe mourning for one day and night (as he was deemed to be dead to them) and from that day they were to stop speaking or sitting with him, and all other social intercourse and he was to be given no inheritance (vide Manu XI. 183-185, Yaj. III. 294, Gaut. 20. 2-7). In this way the obstinate sinner went out of the Hindu fold. The ancient smṛtis do not expressly prescribe any rites for bringing into the brahmanic or Hindu fold a person who or whose ancestors did not belong to it. But as Hinduism has been extremely tolerant^{928a} (barring a few exceptional instances) it had a wonderful power of quiet and unobtrusive absorption. If a person, though of foreign ancestry, conformed to Hindu social usages in outward behaviour, in course of time his descendants became absorbed into the vast Hindu community.

928a. A few striking instances of religious tolerance among kings and common people may be cited with advantage. The Pāla king Mahīpāla I granted a village to a brāhmaṇa of the Vājasaneyasākhā in honour of Lord Buddha (E. I. vol. 14 p. 324). Similarly the king Subhakaradeva who was a great devotee of Buddha (paramasaugata) granted two villages to 200 brāhmaṇas (Neulpur grant in E. I. vol. 15 p. 1); vide also E. I. vol. 15 p. 293. The famous Emperor Harṣa, whose father was a great devotee of the Sun, and who was himself a great devotee of Śiva, pays the highest honour to his elder brother Rājyavardhana who was a very devout Buddhist (paramasaugata). Vide the Madhuban copperplate Inscription in E. I. vol. I. p. 67 and E. I. vol. VII. p. 155. Uṣavadāta makes large gifts to brāhmaṇas as well as to communities of Buddhist monks (vide Nasik Inscriptions No. 10 and No. 12 in E. I. vol. VIII p. 78 and p. 82). The Valabhi king Guhasena who was himself a Māheśvara (a Śaiva) made a grant of four villages to a bhikṣu-saṅgha. From the Paharpur plate of the Gupta year 159 (478-79 A. D.) it appears that a brāhmaṇa and his wife deposited three dīnāras with a city council for the maintenance of the worship of arhats at a vihāra (E. I. Vol. XX. p. 59). The Mulgund inscription of the time of Rāṣṭrakūṭa Kṛṣṇa II. (of 902-3 A. D.) shows that to a temple of Jina at Mulgund a field was given by a brāhmaṇa of the Bellāṣa family (E. I. vol. XIII. p. 190). Vide Rice's 'Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions' pp. 113 and 207 for an account how a Vijayanagar king settled the dispute between Jainas and Śrīvaiṣṇavas in 1368 A. D.

This process has gone on for at least two thousand years. The beginnings of it are found in the Śāntiparva chap. 65 where Indra tells the Emperor Māndhātṛ to bring all foreign people like the Yavanas under brahmanical influence. The Besnagar column inscription shows that the Yona (yavana) Heliadora (Heliodorus) son of Diya (Dion) was a bhāgavata (devotee of Vāsudeva). Vide J. R. A. S. for 1909 pp. 1053 and 1087 and J. B. B. R. A. S. vol. 23 p. 104. In the caves at Nasik, Karle and other places many of the donors are said to have been yavanas (vide E. I. vol. VII, pp. 53-54, 55, E. I. vol. VIII, p. 90, E. I. vol. XVIII, p. 325). Several inscriptions state that Indian kings married Hūṇa princesses, e. g. Allata of the Guhila dynasty married a Hūṇa princess named Hariyadevi (I. A. vol. 39 p. 191), king Yaśaḥkarnadeva of the Kalacuri dynasty is said to have been the son of Karnadeva and Āvalla-devī, a Hūṇa princess. These and similar examples show that persons of foreign descent and their children were absorbed into the Hindu community from time to time. This absorption is illustrated in modern times by the case of *Fanindra Deb v. Rajeshwar* (L. R. 12 I. A. 72) in which it was found that a family in Kocch Behar not originally Hindu had adopted certain Hindu usages and it was held that it had not taken over the practice of adoption. How Hindu customs and incidents persist even after conversion to Islam is strikingly shown by the Khojas and Kutchi Memons of the Bombay Presidency, who though made converts to Islam several centuries ago, were held by the courts in India to have retained the ancient Hindu Law of succession and inheritance.^{928b}

The problem of taking back into the Hindu fold persons who were forcibly converted to other faiths has engaged the attention of smṛtis. Moslems first attacked India in the 8th century from the direction of the province of Sindh. This invasion led to the enslavement and forcible conversion of many people. It appears that Devala and other smṛtikāras tackled with the problem of taking back such people. The Devala smṛti opens with a question by the sages put to Devala who was sitting on the banks of the Sindhu at ease as to how

928 b. The Cutchi Memons Act (XLVI of 1920) as amended by Act XXIV of 1923 now enables Cutchi Memons by observing certain formalities prescribed by the Act to become free from the application of Hindu Law. By Act XXVI of 1937 it is declared that the personal law will apply to all Muslims instead of customary law on going through certain procedure prescribed by the Act.

brāhmanas and members of the other varṇas when carried off by Mlecchas were to be purified and restored to caste. The following verses of the Devala-smṛti are very instructive on this point. Verses 7-10 declare that when a brāhmaṇa is carried off by Mlecchas and he eats or drinks forbidden food or drink or has sexual intercourse with women he should not have approached, he becomes purified by doing the penance of *cāndrāyana* and *parāka*, that a kṣatriya becomes pure by undergoing *parāka* and *pādakṛcchra*, a vaiśya by half of *parāka* and a śūdra by the penance of *parāka* for five days. Then verses 17-22 are most important ^{928c}. 'When persons are forcibly made slaves by Mlecchas, cāṇḍālas and robbers, are compelled to do dirty acts, such as killing cows and other animals or sweeping the leavings of the food (of Mlecchas) or eating the leavings of the food of Mlecchas or partaking of the flesh of asses, camels and village pigs, or having intercourse with their women, or are forced to dine with them, then the penance for purifying a dvijāti that has stayed for a month in this way is *prājāpatya*, for one who had consecrated Vedic fires (and stayed one month or less) it is *cāndrāyana* or *parāka*; for one who stays a year (with Mlecchas in this condition of things) it is both *cāndrāyana* and *parāka*; a śūdra who stays (in this condition) for a month becomes pure by *kṛcchrapāda*; a śūdra who stays a year should drink *yāvaka* for half a month. The appropriate *prāyaścitta* should be determined by learned brāhmanas when a person has stayed (in the above circumstances among Mlecchas) for over a year; in four years the person (who stays in the above circumstances among Mlecchas) is reduced to their condition (i. e. becomes a mleccha and there

928 c. बलाद्वासीकृता ये च म्लेच्छाणां दस्युभिः । अशुभं कारिताः कर्म गवादि-
प्राणिर्हितम् । उच्छिष्टमार्जनं चैव तथा तस्यैव भोजनम् । खरोद्भविद्वाराहाणामामिषस्य च
भक्षणम् । तल्लीणां च तथा सङ्गं तामिश्च सह भोजनम् । मासोषिते द्विजातो तु प्राजापत्यं
विशोधनम् । चान्द्रायणं त्वाहिताग्नेः पराकस्त्वथवा भवेत् । चान्द्रायणं पराकं च चरेत्संवत्सरो-
षितः । संवत्सरोषितः शूद्रो मासार्थं यावत् पिबेत् । मासमात्रोषितः शूद्रः कृच्छ्रपादेन शुध्यति ।
ऊर्ध्वं संवत्सरात्कल्पं प्रायश्चित्तं द्विजोत्तमैः । संवत्सरेष्वनुमिश्च तद्भावमधिगच्छति ॥ देवल
17-22. These six verses are quoted as आपस्तम्ब's by the मिता on या. III. 290
and by अपरार्क p. 1200 (who reads त्रिभिः संवत्सरेष्वपि in v. 22). These
six verses are quoted as देवल's in the प्रायश्चित्तविवेक of शूलपाणि (Jiv. ed.)
p. 455. सर्वज्ञानारायण on मनु. II. 180 appears to regard them as Devala's
as he says चतुर्वत्सरनियमश्च बलाद् ग्रहीतो म्लेच्छाद्यैरित्यादिदेवलस्मृतिदर्शनादुक्तैः ।
The first verse occurs in बृहद्यम V. 5 (Ānan. ed.) after which we read प्राय-
श्चित्तं च दातव्यं तारतम्येन वा द्विजैः ॥ So these verses are certainly older than
1000 A. D.

is no *prāyaścitta* for him).’ The *Prāyaścittaviveka* states that after four years death is the only purifier for him.^{928d} Three more verses of Devala (53-55) also deserve consideration ‘One who was forcibly seized by Mlecchas for five, six or seven years or from ten to twenty years, is purified by undergoing two *Prājāpatyas*. Beyond this there is no purification; these penances are meant only for him who has simply stayed among Mlecchas. He who had stayed with Mlecchas from five to twenty years is purified by undergoing two *Cāndrāyanas*’. These verses are apparently inconsistent with the verses cited above (17-22), but they most probably mean this that if a man only stayed among Mlecchas for 5 to 20 years, but has not done any of the forbidden things such as eating *ucchiṣṭa* or the flesh of asses &c., then he can be taken back even after so many years. This would be an exception to the rule contained in verse 22. There is no reason why the reasoning of Devala should not be extended to persons who have been in the condition stated in verses 17-22 for over four years. In the *Pañcadaśī* (*Tṛptidīpa* v. 239) we have the following very significant passage^{928e} ‘just as a *brāhmaṇa* seized by Mlecchas and afterwards undergoing the appropriate *prāyaścitta* does not become confounded with Mlecchas (but returns to his original status of being a *brāhmaṇa*) so the Intelligent Soul is not really to be confounded with the body and other material adjuncts.’ This establishes that the great *Vidyāranya*, who after *Śaṅkarācārya*, is the greatest figure among *ācāryas*, approved of the view that a *brāhmaṇa* even though enslaved by Mlecchas could be restored to his original status.

Under Shivaji and the Peshwas it appears that several persons that had been forcibly made Moslems were restored to caste after under-going *prāyaścitta* (*vide* notes 2321-2 below for examples). But this was done in only a few instances.

In modern times there is a movement among Hindus called *suddhi* or *patitaparāvartana* (purification or bringing back into the Hindu fold those who had fallen away from it). In a very few cases persons born in western countries have been taken into the Hindu fold by the performance of *vrātyastoma*

928 d. वत्सरादूर्ध्वं वत्सरचतुष्टयं यावत्तावद्भागहारेण प्रायश्चित्तमूहनीयम् । तदूर्ध्वं तत्समत्वेन पतितत्वात् प्रायश्चित्ताभावाद् मरणम् । प्रायश्चित्तविवेक p. 456.

928 e. गृहीतो ब्राह्मणो म्लेच्छैः प्रायश्चित्तं चरन्पुनः । म्लेच्छैः संकीर्यते नैव तथा-भासः शरीरकैः ॥ पञ्चदशी (तृप्तिदीप v. 239).

and other rites. But such instances are very rare and are not yet supported by the vast majority of Hindus. It has been shown above that for taking back a man who was once a Hindu but had left Hinduism, there is *smṛti* authority in Devala and others and the authority of the *Nibandhakāras*.

Punarupanayana (performing upanayana again).

In certain cases an upanayana has to be performed again. The *Āśv.* ⁹²⁹ gr. (I. 22. 22-26) prescribes that in punarupanayana the cutting of the hair and production of intelligence (*medhā-janana*) are optional, there are no rules about *paridāna* (giving in charge of deities) and about the time (i.e. it may be performed at any time and no *paridāna* is necessary) and instead of the usual *Gāyatrī*, he should recite 'tat savitur vṛṇīmahe' (Rg. V. 82. 1.). When a person in whose family one Veda is studied (e. g. the *Rgveda*) wants to study another Veda (e. g. *Yajurveda*), he had to undergo a fresh upanayana. The *Āśv.* gr. *sūtra* is interpreted in this way by some. Haradatta on *Āp. Dh. S. I. 1. 1. 10* says that as the *Sāvitrī* (i. e. *Gāyatrī*, Rg. III. 62. 10) is recited for all Vedas according to the *Brāhmaṇa* passage quoted by *Āp.* one upanayana is sufficient for the study of the three Vedas in succession, but if a person wants to study the *Atharvaveda* after studying another Veda, then a fresh upanayana is necessary. This is one kind of punarupanayana. Another kind of punarupanayana takes place when in the first upanayana the principal rite viz. placing his hands on the boy's shoulders and bringing the student near the teacher is left off through oversight or the first upanayana takes place in a season other than *vasanta* (spring) or in the dark half of a month or on a day which was *anadhyāya* ⁹²⁰ (unfit for Vedic study) or on a *galagraha* (vide note 642 above) or in the latter part of the day. A third kind of punarupanayana is one which is by way of *prāyaścitta* for certain sins or lapses from good conduct. ⁹²¹ Gaut. 23. 2-5

929. अथोपेतपूर्वस्य। कृताकृतं केशवपनं मेधाजननं च। अनिरुक्तं परिदानम्। कालश्च। तत्सविदुर्वृणीमहे इति सावित्रम्। आश्व. गृ. सू. I. 22. 22-26.

930. विनर्तुना वसन्तेन कृष्णपक्षे गलग्रहे। उपनीतस्त्वनध्याये पुनः संस्कारमर्हति। अपराद्धे चोपनीतः पुनः संस्कारमर्हति। भरद्वाज quoted in the संस्कारमयूख, संस्कारकोस्तुभ p. 541 and संस्काररत्नमाला p. 282; सं. प्र. p. 547 quotes a similar verse from देवज्ञवल्गुभ.

931. The संस्कारकोस्तुभ (p. 536 with Marathi tr.) पुनः संस्कारः पुनरुपनयनम्। तच्च त्रिविधम्। प्रत्यवायनिमित्ते प्रायश्चित्तत्वेन विहितम्। निमित्तविशेषेण कृतोपनयनस्य वृथाचेष्टात्वापत्तौ तत्फलार्थत्वेन विहितम्। वेदान्तराध्ययनचिकीर्षायां तदुद्यत्वेन विहितमिति। The संस्कारकोस्तुभ (pp. 536-558) contains the most elaborate treatment of पुनरुपनयन.

prescribes the penance called Taptakṛcchra and punarupanayana for one guilty of drinking wine (surā) in ignorance or partaking of human urine, fæces and semen and the flesh of wild beasts, camels, asses, village cocks, and village hogs. Vas. (23. 30) also has a similar sūtra. Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 25 quotes a verse 'if a person belonging to the three varṇas unknowingly drinks surā (wine) or fæces, he has to undergo punarupanayana' and says (II. 1. 29) that if a brahmacārī carries a corpse (other than that of his parents or teacher) he has to undergo punarupanayana. Manu V. 91 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 86 prescribe the same. In the Baud. gr. paribhāṣāsūtra (I. 12. 4-6) it is said that on partaking of honey, or flesh, śrāddha food or food from those in impurity on birth, or the milk of a cow before the lapse of ten days or the milk of a sandhinī cow, mushrooms or the resin exuded from trees, vilayana (a product of milk?), the food prepared for a number of people in common or the food of prostitutes, a man has to undergo punarupanayana and, according to some, also if he goes to a forbidden country,⁹³² viz. Saurāṣṭra (Kathiawar), Sindhu, and Sauvira (Sind and the territory to its south and east), Avanti (Ujjain), Dakṣiṇāpatha (Deccan), a brāhmaṇa has to undergo punarupanayana (except when he goes on a pilgrimage). It then sets out the procedure (such as a homa, putting a fuel stick of palāśa on the fire and oblations of cooked food and ājya) and adds that in punarupanayana shaving, dakṣiṇā, girdle, staff, deer-skin, begging for food and vratas do not take place.

The Vaik. smārta (VI. 9-10) contains similar rules for punarupanayana.⁹³³ Aparārka (p. 1160) quotes Paithinasi to the effect that if a grown-up person drinks the milk of sheep or of a she-ass, she-camel or of a woman, he has to undergo punarupanayana and also the penance called prajāpatya.

Anadhyāya :—(cessation from Vedic study; holiday).

932. प्रतिषिद्धदेशगमनमित्येकेषाम् । अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । सौराष्ट्रं सिन्धुसौवीर-
मवन्तीं दक्षिणापथम् । एतानि ब्राह्मणो गत्वा पुनः संस्कारमर्हति ॥ बौ. गृ. परिभाषासूत्र
I. 12. 5-6.

933. पितृयेष्टयोरन्येषामुच्छिष्टभोजने मधुमत्स्यमांससूतकमेतकान्नाद्यभोज्यभोजने च
पुनरुपनयनं करोति । वै. स्म. VI. 9.

It appears that from very early times Vedic studies were stopped on various grounds. The Tai. Ār.⁹³⁴ II. 15 has a very important statement on this subject. 'Indeed as to this yajña (brahmayaajña) there are two cases in which the study of the Veda ceases, namely, when the man himself is impure or when the place is impure'. The Śat. Br.⁹³⁵ has a passage in which several occasions when Vedic study was ordinarily stopped are mentioned and it is added that those occasions do not prevent the repetition of Vedic texts as Brahmayaajña. 'Therefore one knowing this should certainly repeat the Veda as Brahmayaajña, when the wind blows, when lightning flashes, when it thunders or when there is a fall of thunderbolt, in order that *vaṣaṭkāras* may not be fruitless'. The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 4. 12. 3.) quotes the Vājasaneyi Brāhmaṇa (the Śatapatha) to the effect that "Vedic study is Brahmayaajña; when it thunders, when lightning flashes, when there is a fall of the thunderbolt, when the wind blows, these are its *vaṣaṭkāras*; ⁹³⁶ therefore when.....fruitless". The Ait. Ār. (V. 3. 3) notes that if there be rain when it is not the season of rainfall, he should make a break by observing cessation of Vedic study for three nights.⁹³⁷

The subject of *anadhyaṃsa* is discussed in the *grhya* and *dharmaśūtras* and in almost all *smṛtis*. It is not possible to give for want of space the differences between the several works. Among *sūtras* and *smṛtis* the most exhaustive and lengthy treatment is found in Āp. Dh. S. (I. 3. 9. 4. to I. 3. 11), Gaut. 16. 5-49, Śāṅkhāyana gr. IV. 7 (S. B. E. vol. 29 pp. 115-118), Manu IV. 102-128, Yāj. I. 144-151. The subject is also treated

934. तस्य वा एतस्य यज्ञस्य द्वावनध्यायौ यदात्माशुचिर्यज्ञैः । ते. आ. II. 15. This is quoted by आश्व. गृ. III. 4. 7 'विज्ञायते तस्य द्वावनध्यायौ यदात्माशुचिर्यज्ञैः'. Manu IV. 127 conveys the same sense in almost the same words. A man may be impure on account of births or deaths in his family or on account of *mala* (dirt on his body) and a place may be so because it is in contact with some impure thing (such as उच्छिष्ट).

935. तस्य वा एतस्य ब्रह्मयज्ञस्य चत्वारो वषट्कारा यदातो वाति विद्योतते स्तनयति अवस्फूर्जति । तस्मादेवंविद्वान्ते वाति विद्योतमाने स्तनयति अवस्फूर्जत्यधीचीतैव वषट्काराणामच्छब्दवत्काराय । शतपथब्राह्मण XI. 5. 6. 9. The words तस्मादेवं &c. are quoted by विश्वरूप on या. I. 145.

936. The word '*vaṣaṭ*' or *svāhā* is uttered when making an offering to a deity. Thunder and lightning are said to be the *vaṣaṭkāras* of brahmayaajña. Just as when the word *vaṣaṭ* is uttered some offering follows, so, when it thunders some Vedic text by way of brahmayaajña should be repeated.

937. अपर्तो वर्षे त्रिरात्रं वैदिकेनाध्यायेनान्तरियात् । ऐ. आ. V. 3. 3.

at length in the Sm. C., Smṛtyarthasāra, the Saṁskāra-kau-stubha (pp. 564-570), the Saṁskāra-ratnamālā (pp. 327-339) and other Nibandha works. In the following an attempt is made to present a tolerably exhaustive list of anadhyāyas together with a few references to the original sources.

Among *tithis* the following are anadhyāyas. On the first, the 8th, the 14th, 15th tithis (Paurṇamāsī and Amāvāsyā) there was to be cessation of Vedic Study for the whole day; vide Manu IV. 113-114, Yāj I. 146 (in both *pratipad* is not expressly mentioned) and Hārīta. Patañjali in the Mahābhāṣya (vol. II. p. 386) refers to anadhyāya on amāvāsyā and 14th tithi. There is a famous verse of the Rāmāyaṇa⁹³⁸ which shows that *pratipad* also was a holiday. Gaut. says that there was no holiday on the full moon days of the twelve months, but only on the full moon days of Āṣāḍha, Kārtika and Phālguna. The Baud. Dh. S. I. 11. 42-43 quotes a verse⁹³⁹ '(Vedic study on) the eighth tithi kills the teacher, 14th kills the pupil, 15th kills learning'. Manu (IV. 114) has a similar verse. Aparārka⁹⁴⁰ (p. 189) quotes from the Nṛsiṁhapurāṇa verses to the effect that there is to be no teaching (of the Veda) on Mahānavamī (9th of Āśvina, bright half), on Bharanī (i. e. the tithi when the moon is in Bharanī nakṣatra after Bhādrapada full moon), Akṣatatrīyā (3rd of Vaiśākha, bright half) and Rathasaptamī (7th of Māgha, bright half). Similarly there is to be anadhyāya on what are called *Yugādi* and *Manvantarādi tithis*. Yugādi tithis according to Viṣṇupurāṇa⁹⁴¹ and Brahmapurāṇa quoted by Aparārka (p. 425) are Vaiśākha-śukla trīyā, Kārtika śukla navamī, Bhādrapada kṛṣṇa trayodaśī and Māgha Pūrṇimā (they are respectively the beginnings of the four yugas, kṛta, tretā, dvāpara and kali). The Sm. C. (I. p. 58) quotes the Nāradiyapurāṇa 'on the day when uttarāyaṇa and dakṣiṇāyana first take place, on Viṣuva (the two

938. सा प्रकृत्यैव तन्वङ्गी तद्वियोगाच्च कर्हिता । प्रतिपत्याटशीलस्य विद्येव तनुतां गता ॥ सुन्दरकाण्ड 59. 32. प्रतिपत्सु चतुर्दश्यामष्टम्यां पर्वणोद्घयोः । श्वोतध्यायेऽद्य शर्वयी नाधायीत कदाचन ॥ हारित in स्मृतिच० I. p. 57.

939. अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । हन्त्यष्टमी ह्युपाध्यायं हन्ति शिष्यं चतुर्दशी । हन्ति पञ्चदशी विद्यां तस्मात्पर्वणि वर्जयेत् ॥ चौ. घ. सू. I. 11. 42-43.

940. वृत्तिहपुराणात् । महातन्त्रम्यां द्वादश्यां भरण्यामपि चैव हि । तथाक्षतवृत्तीयायां शिष्यान्नाध्यापयेद् द्विजः ॥ माघमासे तु सप्तम्यां रथाख्यायां तु वर्जयेत् । अपरार्क p. 189 and स्मृतिच० I. p. 58. These occur in वृत्तिहपुराण 58, 109-110.

941. The verses on *yugāditithis* are विष्णुपुराण III. 14. 13. ff. The मत्स्य-पुराण (17. 4-5) gives similar verses. Vide स्मृतिच० I. p. 59 for these verses. According to some Māgha Amāvāsyā is कलियुगादितिथि.

days in the year when the day and night are equal), on the tithis when Viṣṇu sleeps and awakes from sleep (i. e. Āṣāḍha-śukla-ekādaśī and Kārtika-śukla-ekādaśī), on Yugādi and Manvādi tithis there is *anadhyāya*. The tithis on which the fourteen manvantaras are supposed to begin are quoted below.⁹⁴² According to a purāṇa passage quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 58) there is *anadhyāya* on *Sopapadā* tithis⁹⁴³ (viz. Jyestha śukla 2, Āśvina śukla 10, and Māgha śukla 4 and 12). Sometimes on the same day there are two tithis; hence the rule laid down is that if on any day a particular tithi (which is declared to be *anadhyāya*) is shown in the calendar as extending for three muhūrtas at sunrise or at sunset, then the whole of that day is *anadhyāya*.⁹⁴⁴

Yāj. (I. 148-151) speaks of 37 *tātkālika anadhyāyas* (i. e. where Veda study is suspended only as long as the occasion or disturbance stated lasts). They are: when there is noise created by a dog, jackal, ass, owl, singing of *sūman*, playing on a flute and the cries of the distressed (these are 7); in the vicinity or presence of impure things, of a corpse, or a śūdra or antya (i. e. one of the untouchables), cemetery, a patita (one guilty of mahāpātaka); when the place (of study) has become impure or when the man himself is impure; when there is continuous flashing of lightning or continuous peals of thunder; while one's hands are wet after taking one's meals; in the midst of water; at midnight; when a violent wind is blowing; when there is a rainfall of dust, when the quarters are lit up by sudden (and strange) lights; at the two twilights; when there is fog; when there is a fright (caused by robbers &c.); when one is running; when the smell of something rotten or impure spreads; when a distinguished visitor comes to the house; when one rides an ass, a camel, a conveyance (like a chariot), an elephant, a horse, a boat, or climbs a tree or is in a desert (or barren) place. A few explanatory words may

942. आश्वयुक्ते शुक्लनवमी कार्तिक्या द्वादशी सिता । तृतीया चैत्रमासस्य तथा भाद्रपदस्य च ॥ फाल्गुनस्य त्वमावास्या पुष्यस्यैकादशी सिता । आपादस्यापि दशमी माघमासस्य सप्तमी ॥ आषाढस्याष्टमी कृष्णा आपादस्यापि पौर्णिमा । कार्तिकी फाल्गुनी चैत्री ज्येष्ठी पञ्चदशी सिता ॥ मन्वन्तरादयश्चैते दत्तस्याक्षयकारकाः ॥ मत्स्यपुराण 17. 6-8 quoted in the स्मृतिसं- I. p. 58; vide also स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 9.

943. ज्येष्ठे शुक्लद्वितीया तु आश्विने दशमी सिता । चतुर्थी द्वादशी माघे एताः सोप-पदाः स्मृताः ॥ quoted in स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 8; संस्कारमयूख quotes it as from कालादर्श.

944. उदयास्तमये वापि शुद्धतृत्रयगामि यत् । तद्धिनं तद्दशोरात्रमनध्यायविदो विदुः । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 8.

be added. According to Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 10. 19 when wolves howl, or when there is the sound of any musical instrument, or of weeping, singing or of the recitation of a Sāman there is anadhyāya. Gaut. 16. 7 mentions the sound of bāṇa (a kind of vīṇā), bherī (a drum), mṛdaṅga, garta (a chariot) and the distressed. Manu (IV. 123-124) explains that when a sāman is heard, one should not study any portion of the Rgveda or Yajurveda, because the gods are the devatās of Rgveda, the Yajurveda deals with men (it enjoins actions to be done by men), Sāmaveda has the pitṛs as its deities; hence its sound has something of the impure or uncanny about it. Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 27 prescribes⁹⁴⁵ that there should be no Vedic study as long as there are clouds when it is not the season for clouds, when there is a halo round the sun or moon, when there is a rainbow, or when there is parhelion or a star with a tail (like a fish). Gaut. 16. 19, Āp. Dh. I. 3. 9. 14-15, Vas. 13. 11 say that there is anadhyāya as long as a corpse or a cāṇḍāla is in the village or town. Gaut. 16. 45 states the view of some that the Veda can never be studied in a city; there is no Veda study as long as there is an assembly of people (Manu IV. 108) or while the student is lying down or has stretched his feet or placed them on a cot or stool, or while he sits on his haunches winding round his knees and hips a piece of cloth (Manu IV. 112., Vas. Dh. S. 13. 23, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 30. 17). There is to be anadhyāya when one is answering the calls of nature (Manu IV. 109), or when one has not yet sipped water (ācamana) after taking food, or after partaking of meat (Manu IV. 112), when there is wordy argument or there is an affray or a fight or when one is wounded or when blood flows from the body (Manu IV. 122) or when one suffers from indigestion or vomits or has sour eructations (Manu IV. 121).

In certain cases anadhyāya lasts only for a portion of the day. When the wind blows by day strong enough to carry off clouds of dust (Gaut. 16. 5) there is anadhyāya during the day (but not at night even if the wind is still strong) or when on a festive occasion like upanayana there is anadhyāya after dinner that day (Gaut. 16. 43); when in the morning twilight fire has been kindled for homa and there are

945. अग्रं चापर्वो सूर्याचन्द्रमसोः परिवेष इन्द्रधनुः प्रतिसूर्यमत्स्यश्च वाते पुतिगन्धे नीहारे च सर्वेष्वेतेषु तावत्कालम् । आप. ध. सू. 1. 3. 11. 27; रोहितेन्द्रधनुर्नीहारेषु । अभद्रदर्शने चापर्वो । गौ. 16. 9-10; 'प्रतिसूर्यमत्स्यश्च' is explained by इन्द्रश्च असूर्यसमीपे तदाकृतिः प्रतिसूर्यः मत्स्यः पुच्छवन्नक्षत्रम् । समाहारद्वन्द्वे आन्द्रमसो लिङ्गवत्त्वयः ।

flashes of lightning and thunder (not accompanied by rain) there is anadhyāya till the sun sets. Gaut. (16. 32) prescribes anadhyāya for the rest of the day when the king in whose country a man dwells dies; when a strong wind that was blowing stops, there is anadhyāya for a muhūrta i. e. two ghaṭikās (Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 28) or when there is the howling of sālāvṛka (hyaena?) or a jackal moving about alone there is anadhyāya till one gets up from sleep (ibid I. 3. 11. 29).

In some cases there is anadhyāya for the whole day and night. According to Yāj. I. 145-147 there is such an anadhyāya when there is thunder at the twilight time, there is a fall of the thunderbolt or earth-quake or the fall of a meteor, when one finishes Samhitā or Brāhmaṇa (of the śākhā one is studying) or when one finishes the study of the Āraṇyaka portion of one's Veda; when there is an eclipse of the sun or moon, or when it is the first day after the season changes or when a person partakes of śrāddha food or accepts a gift on śrāddha (except in Ekoddiṣṭa śrāddha); when a beast, frog, mongoose, dog, snake, cat or mouse passes between the teacher and pupil (Manu IV. 126 also) or when the banner of Indra is raised or taken down. Manu IV. 110 lays down anadhyāya for three days when one accepts invitation for an Ekoddiṣṭa śrāddha or when the king dies or when there is an eclipse. This last refers to an eclipse where the sun or the moon sets while still eclipsed. Gaut. I. 60 prescribes cessation for three days when dogs and others come between. This is explained as referring to the first lesson in Veda, while the words of Manu and Yāj. are held to refer to repetition. Raising the banner in honour of Indra was a festival prescribed for kings in the Kauśika sūtra 140 and other works. The banner was raised usually in Bhādrapada (or sometimes in Āśvina) on the 12th of the bright half when the moon was in conjunction with uttarāṣāḍhā, śravaṇa or dhanisthā constellation and it was taken down in the same month on the bharanī constellation (vide Sm. C. I. p. 59). According to the Br̥hat-Samhitā (chap. 43) of Varāha this festival lasted from the 8th to the 12th day of Bhādrapada śukla. Manu (IV. 119) prescribes anadhyāya for a day and night on the Aṣṭakā days⁹⁴⁶ and on the last day of each of the six ṛtus (seasons).

946. The aṣṭakā homa was performed on the 8th of the dark half of the four months from Mārgaśīrṣa (according to Āśv. gr. II. 4. 1) or (according to others) of three months of Pauṣa, Māgha and Phālguna. Gaut. 16. 38-39 prescribed three days' anadhyāya on each of the three Aṣṭakās or according to some only on the last Aṣṭakā.

In a few cases the anadhyāya was ākālika⁹⁴⁷ i. e. lasted for one day (60 ghaṭikās) from the time when the cause began to operate up to the same hour next day. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 3. 11. 25-26) lays down this kind of anadhyāya if out of three viz. flashing of lightning, thunder and rain, one or two occur at a time when it is no season for rain; there is this anadhyāya for all vidyās at all times, when there is an eclipse of the sun or the moon or there is an earthquake or a whirlwind or fall of meteors. Manu IV. 103-105 and Gautama 16. 22-23 are similar to Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 25-26 and Manu IV. 118 prescribes ākālika anadhyāya when a village is thrown into confusion by thieves or there is a commotion due to a conflagration and in the case of all portentous phenomena (such as rain of blood or stones; vide Vas. 13. 35). Gaut. (16. 47-48) adds that the performer of a śrāddha (whether he actually serves cooked food to brāhmaṇas or only makes gifts of money and corn &c.) has to observe this anadhyāya (vide Manu IV. 117 also).

Anadhyāya for three days was prescribed in a few cases. If lightning, thunder and rain all appear together when it is not the proper season for them, there is anadhyāya for three days (Āp. Dh. I. 3. 11. 23). Vide note 937 above. In the utsarga and upākaraṇa of the Vedas, on the death of gurus (persons worthy of respect like the father-in-law), on the Aṣṭakās and on the death of near agnates (like brother, nephew &c.) there is anadhyāya for three days⁹⁴⁸ (Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 10. 2-3). Gaut. (6. 38-41) is similar to Āp. The Hārīta dharmasūtra⁹⁴⁹ prescribes anadhyāya for three days on the death of one's upādhyāya, or of the king or of a śrotriya or fellow pupil, on eclipses of the sun and the moon, on the taking down of the banner of Indra and on the death of one's ācārya.

947. The मित्ता on ya. I. 147 derives the word as follows 'निमित्त-कालादारभ्यापरेद्युर्ध्वत्स एव कालस्तावत्कालः आकालः तत्र भव आकालिकोऽनध्यायः'.

948. वैरमणे गुरुष्वष्टाक्ष्य औपाकरण इति त्र्यहः । तथा संबन्धेषु ज्ञातिषु । आप. ध. I. 3. 10. 2-3. उपाकरण (उपाकर्म्म) and उत्सर्ग (वैरमण) will be explained later. The sūtra तथा.....ज्ञातिषु applies to a ब्रह्मचारी since others have to observe अनध्याय on the death of agnates till aśauca lasts. In this last case अनध्याय begins on the day of death. In उपाकरण or उत्सर्ग the three days are the day previous to them, the day following them and the one on which that rite is performed.

949. अत एव हारीतः । उपाध्याये राजानि च मृते श्रोत्रिये सन्न्यासि च चन्द्रा-कर्मो राहुदर्शने शक्रध्वजपतन आचार्ये च मृते त्रिरात्रम् । इति । अपराकं p. 190. The श्रोत्रिय, as ya. I. 144 says, must be one who has studied the same śākha.

Manu (IV. 110 and 119) prescribes anadhyāya for three days on accepting invitation for *ekoddiṣṭa śrāddha*, on the death of the king, on eclipses and on upākarma or utsarga. Yaj. I. 144 contains similar rules.

Āp. Dh. S. (I. 3. 10. 4) prescribes 12 days' anadhyāya on the death of one's parents and ācārya. Baud. Dh. S. I. 11. 32 prescribes⁹⁵⁰ three days' anadhyāya on the death of one's father. This rule must be taken as referring only to a brahmacārī. Vas. (13. 39-40) prescribes three days' anadhyāya on the death of one's ācārya and one day's on the death of the son or wife of the ācārya.

The Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 10) mentions some occasions when anadhyāya may extend to a month, to six months, or a year. Āp. D. S. I. 3. 9. 1. prescribes that, when upākarma is performed on the full moon day of Śrāvana, for a month thereafter one should not study Veda in the first part of the night (he may do so after that at night or in the day).

Aparārka (p. 192) quotes a verse from Yama⁹⁵¹ that there can be no Vedic study under the shade of certain trees like Śleṣmātaka, Śālmali (silk-cotton), Madhuka, Kovidāra and Kapitthaka.

Both Gaut. (16. 49) and Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 34 state that besides the anadhyāyas expressly mentioned by them there are others which may be learnt from the several smṛtis and from the assemblies of learned men.⁹⁵²

It would be noticed how the number of anadhyāyas is rather too numerous for rapid and effective study. Therefore certain rules are laid down to explain what is that is forbidden on those days.

In the first place anadhyāya may be vācika (concerned with the loud utterance of Vedic words), mānasa (revolving

950. पितृवृषते त्रिरात्रम् । नौ. ध. I. 11. 3-2; आचार्ये प्रेते त्रिरात्रम् । आचार्यपुत्र-
शिष्यभार्यास्वहोरात्रम् । वसिष्ठ 13. 39-40.

951. श्रेष्ठातकस्य छायायां शालमलेर्मधुकस्य च । कदाचिदपि नाध्येयं कोविदार-
कपित्थयोः ॥ यम quoted by अपरार्क p. 192. In the परा. मा. I. I. p. 158 this
is quoted as from the कूर्मपुराण.

952. प्रतिविद्यं च यान्मरन्ति । गौ. 16. 49; यथोक्तमन्यद्वतः परिषत्सु । आप. ध.
सू. I. 3. 11. 34.

the Veda in the mind). Baud. Dh. S. I.⁹⁵³ 11. 40-41 says that the rule about anadhyāya on portentous happenings for a day and night does not apply to mānasa study; but even mānasa study is forbidden when there is impurity due to birth or death. Gaut. 16. 46 says the same. Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 20 allows (in general) mental study (not vocal) on anadhyāya days. Vide also Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 32. 12-13.

The Āp. Śrautasūtra⁹⁵⁴ (24. 1. 37) says that the rules about anadhyāya apply only to the learning of Vedic mantras, but have no application to their employment in various rites. Jaimini⁹⁵⁵ (XII. 3. 18-19) establishes the proposition that the rules about anadhyāya being prescribed for acquisition of the Vedic mantras have no application to their employment in sacrifices. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 12. 9 has a sūtra which shows remarkable agreement with the words of Jaimini.

We saw above that according to the Tai. Ār. the rules of anadhyāya do not apply to the daily performance of Brahmayajña (i. e. to the repetition of the Vedic texts already learnt). Manu II. 105 says that there is no concern about anadhyāya as to the lores (the āngas like grammar, Nirukta &c.) helpful to (understanding of) the Veda, the obligatory svādhyāya (i. e. brahmayajña) and the mantras to be used in homa. Śaunaka⁹⁵⁶ quoted in the Sm. C. says there is no anadhyāya as to repeating the Vedic texts in the obligatory rites and in japa nor in kāmya rites, in sacrifices or in the pārāyaṇa (repeating the Veda already learnt); the anadhyāya rules apply only to the first learning of Vedic mantras and to their teaching. The Smṛtyarthasāra⁹⁵⁷ (p. 10) says that those who have a slippery memory or those who have to commit to memory extensive Vedic texts

953. अन्येषु चाहुतोत्पातेषु अहोरात्रमनध्यायोऽन्यत्र मानसात् । मानसेपि जनन-मरणयोरनध्यायः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 11. 40-41; मानसमप्यह्नाचिः । गौ. 16. 46; मनसा चानध्याये । आप. ध. सू. I. 3. 11. 20.

954. स्वाध्यायेऽनध्यायो मन्त्राणां न कर्मण्यर्थान्तरत्वात् । आप. श्रौ. 24. 1. 37.

955. मन्त्राणां कर्मसंयोगात्स्वधर्मेण प्रयोगः स्याद्वर्मस्य तन्निमित्तत्वात् । विद्यां प्रति विधानाद्वा सर्वकालं प्रयोगः स्यात्कर्मार्थत्वात्प्रयोगस्य । जै. XII. 3. 18-19. The first sūtra contains the पूर्वपक्ष view; compare विद्यां प्रत्यनध्यायः श्रूयते न कर्मयोगे मन्त्राणाम् । आप. ध. I. 4. 12. 9.

956. नित्ये जपे च काम्ये च क्रतौ पारायणेपि च । नानध्यायोस्ति वेदानां ग्रहणे ग्राहणे स्मृतः । शौनक in स्मृतिच. I. p. 61; vide similar verses in स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 11.

957. तथा विस्मृतिशीलानां बहुवेदमपाठिनाम् । चतुर्दश्यष्टमी-पूर्वमेतिपद्वर्जितेषु त । वेदाङ्गन्यायमीमांसाधर्मशास्त्राणि चाभ्यसेत् । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 10

should study the Vedāṅgas, nyāya (logic), mimāṃsā and dharmaśāstras on all anadhyāyas except on 1st, 8th, 14th and full moon and new moon days. Some digests quote a verse from the Kūrmapurāṇa⁹⁵⁸ that there is no anadhyāya for the study of Vedāṅgas, of itihāsa, purāṇas, dharmaśāstras and other śāstras ; but on *parva* days the study of even these should be dropped. This shows that these *tithis* were the only close holidays on which there was complete cessation of all study, whether Vedic or non-Vedic. That is, these were what are called *nitya* holidays while the rest are *naimittika* anadhyāyas. Even now these *nitya* anadhyāyas are observed by *vaidikas* and by *Pandits* in their Sanskrit schools (particularly *amāvāsyā*).

It will be seen that though some of the occasions for anadhyāya are somewhat strange and bizarre, underlying most of them there are reasonable and understandable principles. Vedic study depended in the first place on memorizing. Committing sacred texts to memory (without in most cases understanding their meaning) required close attention and concentration. Therefore, all occasions which caused disturbance or distraction of mind were held to be anadhyāyas. But the same concentration was not necessary for reciting in sacrifices or *japa* or *brahma-yajña* what had already been committed to memory. Hence such occasions were not anadhyāyas for those purposes.

It was believed that⁹⁵⁹ if a person taught the Vedic lore or studied it on anadhyāya days, he incurred loss as to (long) life, offspring, cattle, intelligence and the merit accumulated by him.

Keśānta or *godāna* :—This *samśkāra* consists in shaving the head and also the hair on the other parts of the body (such as arm-pits, chin). *Pār. gr.*, *Yāj. (I. 36)* and *Manu (II. 65)* employ the word *keśānta*, while *Āśv. gr.*, *Śāh. gr.*, *Gobhila* and other *grhyasūtras* employ the word *godāna*. In the *Śat.*⁹⁶⁰ *Br.* while speaking of the *dikṣā* (consecration of the performer

958. अनध्यायस्तु नाङ्गेषु नेतिहासपुराणयोः । न धर्मशास्त्रेष्वन्येषु पर्वण्येतानि वर्जयेत् ॥ quoted from कूर्मपुराण by निर्णयसिन्धु. This is कूर्मपुराण (उत्तरार्ध) 14. 82-83 and औशनसस्मृति (Jiv. ed. I. p. 517)

959. यमोपि । आयुः प्रजां पशून् मेधां कृतं हि सुकृतं च यत् । अनध्यायेष्वन्यसतो ब्रह्म व्याहरतस्तथा ॥ स्मृतिच० I. p. 61. Vide two similar verses quoted in स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 8.

960. स दक्षिणमेवाग्ने गोदानमभ्युनक्ति । शतपथ III. 1. 2. 4.

of a sacrifice) the word godāna is used in the sense of a portion of the hair (on the head) near the top of the ear. Most smṛtikāras say that this saṁskāra was performed in the 16th year. According to Śāṅ. gr. (I. 28. 20, S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 57) it may be performed in the 16th or 18th year. According to Manu II. 65 keśānta is performed in the 16th, 22nd or 24th year respectively for a brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya or vaiśya. The Laghu-Āśvalāyana smṛti XIV. 1 says that Godāna may be performed in the 16th year or at the time of marriage. This last view seems to have been known to Bhavabhūti who in his Uttararāmacarita ⁹⁶¹ (Act. I) makes the heroine Sītā say that Rāma and his three brothers had the godāna ceremony performed immediately before their marriage. It is somewhat strange that according to the Kausika sūtra ⁹⁶² (54. 15) godāna precedes cūḍākarma and the commentator Keśava remarks that godāna takes place at the end of the first or 2nd year (from birth).

There is great divergence of views about the starting point from which 16 years are to be calculated. The Baud. Dh. S. (I. 2. 7) has stated the rule in general terms that the number of years is to be calculated from the time of conception. ⁹⁶³ Following this rule the Mīt. on Yāj. I. 36 and Kullūka on Man II. 65 say that godāna should be performed in the 16th year from conception in the case of brāhmaṇas, ⁹⁶⁴ while Aparārka says that it is to be performed in the 16th year from birth. Viśvarūpa ⁹⁶⁵ on Yāj. I. 36 says that whatever the period of brahmacarya that a student was going to observe (whether 12, 24, 36, 48 &c.) keśānta must be performed in the 16th year and if any one had his upanayana performed later than the 16th year, then keśānta will not take place at all. Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. I. 22. 3 notes that according to some godāna takes

961. एते खलु तत्कालकृतगोदानमङ्गलाश्रित्वारो भ्रातरो विवाहदीक्षिता यूयम् । उत्तररामचरित I.

962. चूडाकरणं च गोदानेन व्याख्यातम् । कौशिकसूत्र 54. 15.

963. गर्भादिसंख्या वर्षाणां तदष्टमेषु ब्राह्मणमुपनयति । बौ. ध. सू. I. 2. 7.

964. केशान्तः पुनर्गोदानाख्यं कर्म गर्भादारभ्य षोडशे वर्षे ब्राह्मणस्य कार्यम् । एतच्च द्वादशवार्षिके वदन्ते बौद्धव्यम् । इतरस्मिन्पक्षे यथासंभवं द्रष्टव्यम् । राज्यन्यवैश्ययोस्तुपनयनकालवद् द्वाविंशे चतुर्विंशे वा द्रष्टव्यम् । मिता on या. I. 36.

965. On केशान्तश्चैव षोडशे 'केशान्तस्तु सर्वपक्षेषु षोडश एवावदे कर्तव्यः । चशब्दस्तु-शब्दस्यार्थः । एवकारस्योत्कर्षः ।'..... यदा पुनः प्राक् षोडशाब्दात्कथंचिन्नोपनीतस्तदा काल-प्राप्तावमुपनीतस्य तदभावः । विश्वरूप on या. I. 36.

place in the 16th year from upanayana, while others celebrate it in the 16th year from birth.

All sūtrakāras are agreed that godāna or keśānta follows the procedure of cūḍākarana with a few differences. The Āśv. gr. (I. 18. 1-9) points these out. Caula is performed in the 3rd year, while godāna is performed in the 16th. Āśv. gr. further says "wherever the word keśa occurs (in the mantras or procedure of caula) he should employ the word śmaśru (beard). He moistens the beard here. (The mantra is) 'purify his head and face, but do not deprive him of life'. He gives orders (to the barber) 'arrange his beard, the hair of his body and his nails, ending in the north'. Having bathed and stood up silently during the rest of the day, he should break his silence in the presence of his teacher (saying to the teacher) 'I give a gift'. The fee is a pair of cows. Let the teacher instruct him to keep the observances for a year"⁹⁶⁶. Nārāyaṇa notes that being grown up he should not sit on his mother's lap as in caula (but sit to her right) and that the instruction is to be on the next day. Nārāyaṇa says that the instruction referred to is the one mentioned in Āśv. gr. I. 22. 20 from 'cutting the hair' to 'giving in charge' i. e. from Āśv. gr. I. 19. 8. to I. 20. 7. It is better to hold as Pār. and Bhār. gr. ordain that the instruction is as to brahmacyavratā (mentioned⁹⁶⁷ in Āśv. gr. I. 22. 17) or that he is not to shave himself for a year, 12 days, 6 days or at least 3 days. Pār. gr., Śāṅkhāyana and several others allowed the fee of only one cow⁹⁶⁸. Gobhila (III. 1. 5) and Khādīra (II. 5. 3) allowed optionally the gift of a pair of horses or a pair of sheep for kṣatriyas or vaiśyas respectively. According to

966. In आश्व. गृ. I. 17. 7 the mantra in चौल is अदितिः केशान् वपतु; instead of it the mantra in godāna is 'अदितिः इमंशृणि वपतु'. In चौल आश्व. (I. 17. 8) prescribes the laying of kuśa bunches on to the right side of the hair; in गोदान the kuśa is laid on the beard (before it is cut). In चौल the edge of the razor is wiped with the mantra 'यत्क्षुरेण मर्चयता क्षुपेशसा वसत वपसि केशान्। शुन्धि क्षिरो मास्यायुः प्रमोषीः (आश्व. गृ. I. 17. 15); instead in गोदान, the mantra is यत्...वपसि इमंशृणि ॥ शुन्धि क्षिरो मुखं मास्या &c. In this way ऊह (necessary changes in the words) is to be made. In चौल in आश्व. I. 17. 16 the direction to the barber is 'शीतोष्णाभिरन्धिरवर्थं कुर्वाणोऽक्षुण्वन्कुशलीकुरु'; in गोदान it is 'शीतो...क्षुण्वन् कुशली केशश्मश्रुलोमनखान्युद्वक्संस्थानि कुरु'.

967. अत ऊर्ध्वमक्षारलवणाशी ब्रह्मचार्यधःशायी त्रिरात्रं द्वादशरात्रं संवत्सरं वा। आश्व. गृ. I. 22. 17.

968. गां केशान्ते संवत्सरं ब्रह्मचर्यमवपनं च केशान्ते द्वादशरात्रं षड्वारं त्रिरात्र-मन्ततः। पारस्कर गृ. II. 1; संवत्सरं कृतगोदानो ब्रह्मचर्यं चरति। भारद्वाजशृङ्गा I. 10.

Gobhila and Khādīra shaving the beard precedes a vrata called godānika for one year and both state at length the observances of that vrata (Gobhila III. 1. 11-29, Khādīra II. 5. 7-16).

Saṁ. gr. (I. 28. 22) expressly says that the keśānta ceremony is performed for girls but silently. Āp. gr. 16.15, Hir. gr. 6. 16, Bhāradvāja gr. I. 10, Baud. gr. III. 2. 55 prescribe in godāna the removal of all the hair on the head (including the śikhā top-knot), while in caula it is not so.

This saṁskāra gradually went out of vogue, so much so that most of the medieval digests like the Sm. C., the Saṁskāraprakāśa, and the Nirṇayasindhu contain hardly anything about it.

Snāna or Samāvartana:—(Taking the ceremonial bath after finishing Vedic study and returning from the teacher's house). Some sūtrakāras such as Gaut. (VIII. 16), Āp. gr. XII. 1, Hir. gr. 9. 1 and Yāj. I. 51 employ the word 'snāna' for this saṁskāra, while Āśv. gr. III. 8. 1, Baud. gr. (II. 6. 1), Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 7. 15 and 31, Bhār. gr. II. 18 employ the word samāvartana. The Khādīra gr. (I. 3. 2-3, III. 1. 1) and Gobhila III. 4. 7 use the word 'āplavana' (which means snāna). Manu (III. 4) uses both 'snāna' and 'samāvartana' in "a *dvija* being permitted by his teacher, may take the ceremonial bath and return from his teacher according to the rules laid down (in his own grhyasūtra) and then marry a girl &c". Aparārka (p. 76) explains this verse by saying that it makes a distinction between snāna and samāvartana. The distinction consists in this: snāna or ceremonial bath indicates the completion of the period of student-hood. A man who wants to remain a brahmacārin all his life need not undergo this saṁskāra. Samāvartana literally means 'return from the teacher's house to one's home'. If a boy learns under his own father, then literally speaking there will be no return in his case from a teacher's house. Medhātithi⁹⁶⁹ (on Manu III. 4) puts this position forcibly. Samāvartana is not a necessary *aṅga* (adjunct) of marriage and therefore he who learnt the Veda in his father's house may, though there is no return (to the father's house from the teacher's house), enter on matrimony. Some hold that Samāvartana is an *aṅga* of marriage and consists

969. न तु समावर्तनं विवाहाङ्गम् । तेन यः पितृगृहे एवाधीतवेदस्तस्यासमावृत्तस्य संभवत्येव विवाहः । केचित्समावर्तनं विवाहाङ्गं स्नानं मन्यन्ते । क्वाश्रुत्या भेदप्रतिपत्तिरिति चेदेवं तर्हि समावर्तनं विवाहाङ्गं स्नानसंस्कारं वक्ष्यति । अथवा यमनियमत्यागाभिप्रायं समावृत्तिवचनम् । मेधा. on मनु III. 4.

in the ceremonial bath. If it be said that the gerundial termination (tvā in snātvā in Manu III. 4) conveys distinction between snāna and samāvartana, the reply is that Manu will later on speak of samāvartana as the saṁskāra of snāna.

Āp. gr. 12. 1 begins its treatment with the words 'vedam adhitya snāsyān' (after learning the Veda and when about to undergo the ceremonial bath). Having these words in mind Baud. gr. ⁹⁷⁰ (II 6. 1) remarks that in the words 'vedam adhitya snāsyān' it is samāvartana that has been described. Hence the essence of samāvartana is the ceremonial bath and return to the parental home is a subsidiary matter (which may or may not occur in the case of a student). The Mahābhāṣya (vol. I. p. 384) says that a person after he has studied the Veda and taken the ceremonial bath with the permission of the teacher should begin to use a cot (for sleeping on).

In the Vedic Literature both words are used. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad ⁹⁷¹ IV. 10. 1 we read that Upakosala Kāmalāyana became a student of Satyakāma Jābāla and tended his teacher's fires for twelve years; the teacher while making his other pupils return (to their parental home) did not make Upakosala return. Here it is clear that the Upaniṣad knew the term 'samāvartana'. Similarly in Chāndogya VIII. 15 it is stated that 'having studied the Veda according to the rules in the time that was left after doing work for the teacher and having returned from the teacher's house to his own family'. On the other hand the Śat. Br. (XI. 3. 3. 7) says 'that one ⁹⁷² should not beg after taking the ceremonial bath'. The Śat. Br. (XII. 1. 1. 10) distinguishes ⁹⁷³ a snātaka from a brahmacārīn (S. B. E. vol. 44 p. 137). Similarly the Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 14. 13 quotes a Brāhmaṇa passage 'therefore the face of the snātaka is as if resplendent with fire'. The Ait. Ār. V. ⁹⁷⁴ 3. 3. remarks that 'one who

970. वेदमधीत्य स्नास्यन्नित्युक्तं समावर्तनम् । बौ. गृ. II. 6. 1. अधीत्य स्नात्वा गुरुभिरनुज्ञातेन खट्वारोहव्या । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 384.

971. सह स्नान्यानन्तेवासिनः समावर्तयन्तं ह स्मैव न समावर्तयति । छान्दोग्य IV. 10. 1 ; आचार्यकुलद्वेदमधीत्य यथाविधानं गुरोः कर्मातिशेषणाभिसमावृत्य कुटुम्बे । छान्दोग्य VIII. 15. 1.

972. न ह वै स्नात्वा भिक्षत । शतपथ ब्रा. XI. 3. 3. 7. This is quoted by the बौ. ध. सू. I. 2. 53 (along with other passages of the same ब्राह्मण)

973. The गोपथब्रा. (पूर्वार्ध IV. 6) also distinguishes between स्नातक and ब्रह्मचारी 'अथ तमन्यस्नातको वा ब्रह्मचारी वा दीक्षयति न पूतः पावयेदित्याहुः'.

974. नेदमनधीयन् स्नातको भवति यद्यन्यद्वबहधीयात् । ऐ. आ. V. 3. 3 ; महद्वै श्रुतं स्नातको भवतीति विज्ञायते । आश्व. गृ. III. 9. 8.

has not studied this (mahāvratā) does not become a (true) snātaka, even though he may have learnt a good deal else.' The Āsv. gr. III. 9. 8 summarises a Brāhmaṇa passage to the effect that a snātaka is indeed a great being.

Snāna (the ceremonial bath) was ordained by the sūtrakāras after a student finished his Vedic study. The Āsv. gr. (III. 9. 4) remarks 'after having finished (the task of learning) vidyā, they should invite his teacher to name the gift (of wealth or otherwise) he desired or when the pupil has been permitted by the teacher, the pupil may take a ceremonial bath.'⁹⁷⁵ This shows that one may perform snāna either when he had finished his Vedic and other studies or he may do so even without finishing his intended studies, if the teacher permitted him to do so. The Pār. gr. II. 6 is more explicit 'The student should take the ceremonial bath after finishing (the study of) the Veda or when he has gone through the period of student-hood for 48 years, or for 12 years according to some (teachers); (he should) take the bath when permitted by the teacher.' A person who has taken the ceremonial bath is called a snātaka. A snātaka is said by the Pār. gr. (II. 5),⁹⁷⁶ Gobhila (III. 5. 21-22), Baud. gr. paribhāṣā sūtra I. 15, Hārīta and others to be of three kinds, viz. vidyāsnātaka (or Veda-snātaka as Baud. gr. paribhāṣā has it), vrataśnātaka and vidyā-vrataśnātaka (or veda-vrata-snātaka as in Baud.). One who has finished Veda study, but has not gone through the vrataś (described above) is called vidyā-snātaka; one who has finished the vrataś, but has not finished his Veda study is styled vrata-snātaka; while one who has finished both is named vidyā-vrata-snātaka. Yāj. I. 51 in saying that a student 'after finishing Veda (study) or the vrataś (observances of brahmacharya) or both, and after giving to the teacher what the latter chooses to ask should take the ceremonial bath with the teacher's permission' impliedly refers to the three-fold division of snātakas. These three alternatives are due to the fact that a student may not have the ability or the time to go through the full Vedic curriculum and the

975. विद्यान्ते गुरुमर्थेन निमन्त्रं कृत्वाऽनुज्ञातस्य वा स्नानम् । आश्व. गृ. III. 9. 4.; वेदं समाप्य स्नायाद् ब्रह्मचर्यं वाष्टाचत्वारिंशकं द्वादशकेप्येके गुरुणाऽनुज्ञातः । पारस्करगृह्य II. 6.

976. त्रयः स्नातका भवन्ति विद्यास्नातको व्रतस्नातको विद्याव्रतस्नातक इति । समाप्य वेदमसमाप्य व्रतं यः समावर्तते स विद्यास्नातकः समाप्य व्रतमसमाप्य वेदं यः समावर्तते स व्रतस्नातक उभयं समाप्य यः समावर्तते स विद्याव्रतस्नातक इति । पारस्करगृह्य II. 5; हारीत as quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 66 is the same.

vratas. Medhātithi on Manu IV. 31 notices that according to some vrata-snātakas are those who without finishing Veda study take the ceremonial bath three years after upanayana. Gobhila (III. 5. 23) says that of these, vidyā-vrata-snātaka is the best, the other two being equal to each other. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 11. 30. 1-5) refers to this three-fold division and adds that all three are to be honoured as snātakas, but that great reward follows by honouring vidyā-vrata-snātakas.

A good deal of time may conceivably elapse between a man's taking the ceremonial bath and actually marrying a woman. During that period he is called a snātaka; while after marriage he comes to be called a gr̥hastha⁹⁷⁷. As long as a person is not married after he takes the bath, he has to follow the observances prescribed for snātakas and gr̥hasthas so far as applicable to his position but not those of a student. Gaut.⁹⁷⁸ (IX. 1-2) makes the position quite clear by prescribing the same rules of conduct for gr̥hasthas and for snātakas. He also states (in III. 9) that whatever rules laid down for brahmachārins are not opposed to the special rules for other āśramas are to be observed by all. The latter means that the special observances of a brahmachārī are not applicable to him (such as avoiding honey and flesh, living on alms, offering fuel-sticks to fire).

The most elaborate procedure of samāvartana is found in Hir. gr. I. 9-13, Baud. gr. paribhāṣā I. 14, Pār. gr. II. 6 and Gobhila gr. III. 4-5. A concise statement is given below from Āśv. gr. (III. 8 and 9). The student who is about to return home from his teacher should get ready (eleven) things, viz. a jewel (to be suspended round his neck), two ear-rings, a pair of garments, an umbrella, a pair of shoes, a staff, a wreath, (powder) for rubbing his body with, ointment, eye-salve, a turban, (all these) being meant for the teacher and for himself. If he cannot afford to have these materials for both of them, then he

977. आ जायासङ्गमात्स्नातका भवन्त्यत ऊर्ध्वं गृहस्थाः । बौ. गृ. परिभाषा I. 15. 10.

978. Vide हरदत्त on गौतम IX. 2 (स्नातकश्च) 'ब्रह्मचर्याश्रितत्वाद्गृहस्थ-
ध्यतिरिक्ताश्रमान्तराभावाच्च भार्याधिगमाद्गृहस्थमिति पूर्वसूत्रमारब्धम् । स्नातकस्य तु भार्या-
धिगमासंभवे यावज्जीवं गृहस्थधर्मा एवाख्येया इति सूत्रमारब्धम् । हरदत्त on आप. ध. I. 11. 30. 6 (अथ स्नातकः) says that some of the स्नातकव्रतस are common to गृहस्थस. According to हरदत्त on आप. ध. I. 11. 30. 3 व्रताणि in व्रतस्नातक does not stand for the special व्रतस like महानान्नी, but for the general observances such अग्निन्यन, भैक्षचर्या.

should prepare them only for the teacher. He should procure a fuel-stick from the north-east side of a sacrificial tree (like *palāśa*); the fuel-stick may be undried if he wishes for the enjoyment of food or for prosperity or for splendour; it may be dry if he wishes for spiritual lustre; or both dry (in part) and undried in the remaining part if he desires both. Having placed the fuel-stick on high (not on the ground) and having made gifts of food and of a cow to *brāhmaṇas*, he should perform the actions prescribed in *godāna* ceremony (and not the observances like remaining silent). He should⁹⁷⁹ alter the mantras (of *godāna*) so that they refer to himself. (He should rub himself) with the powder of *Ekaklitaka*.⁹⁸⁰ Having bathed himself in lukewarm water and having put on two garments which have not yet been washed (or used) with the mantra 'You two (*Mitra* and *Varuṇa*) put on garments'⁹⁸¹ with fat splendour' (*Rg. I. 152. 1*); he should apply eye-salve to his eyes with the words 'thou art the lustre of stone, protect my eye.' He should fasten the two ear-rings with the words 'thou art the lustre of stone; protect my ear.' After having smeared his two hands with ointment (saffron paste &c.) a *brāhmaṇa* should first anoint his face with it (and then the limbs), a *Rājanya* his two arms first, a *vaiśya* his belly first, a woman her private parts, persons, who maintain themselves by running, their thighs. With the words 'free from distress art thou, may I become free from distress' he should put on the wreath, but not such a wreath as would be called a *mālā* (garland). If some call it *mālā* (through ignorance of what to say) he should cause them to speak of it as *sraja* (wreath). He steps into the shoes with the words 'you two are the supports of the gods, protect me from all sides' and with the

979. This means:—instead of 'ओषधे त्रायस्वैनं स्वधिते मेनं हिंसीः' (आश्व. यृ. I. 17. 8-9) repeated in *चौल* and *गोदान* (by the *आचार्य*) the student should himself repeat the mantra as 'ओषधे त्रायस्व मां स्वधिते मा मा हिंसीः'. Instead of the mantra 'शुन्धि शिरो मुखं नास्यायुः प्रमोषीः' repeated by the *आचार्य* in *गोदान*, the student should himself say 'शुन्धि शिरो मुखं मा मे आयुः प्रमोषीः'.

980. 'करञ्जबीजस्य यत्रैकं बीजं तदेककृत्तम् । तत्पेषयित्वा तेनोन्मर्दनं कारयेत् ॥' *नारायण* on *आश्व. यृ. III. 8. 8*. It is the seed of the *करञ्ज* tree which contains only one grain that is to be powdered.

981. The mantra *युवं वज्राणि* is to be repeated with each garment. The eye-salve is to be applied to the left eye first and then to the right, says *Nārāyaṇa* quoting a *smṛti*. The ear-ring is first to be fastened on the right ear and then on the left.

words 'heaven's covering art thou' he takes the umbrella. He takes the bamboo staff with the words 'bamboo art thou, thou art the child of a tree, protect me from all sides.' Having tied round his neck the jewel⁹⁸² with the hymn beginning with 'āyusyam',⁹⁸³ and having arranged the turban (on his head) he should in a standing posture put a fuel-stick (on the fire), and should say at that time 'memory and reproach, knowledge, faith, wisdom as the fifth, what is sacrificed, what is given (as gift), what is studied and what is done, truth, learning, observances. O Agni, the vow (of thee) together with Indra, with Prajāpati, with the sages, with the sages that are kṣatriyas, with the Fathers, with the kings among Fathers, with men and with the kings among men, with the glow, with the super-glow, with the after-glow, with the counter-glow, with gods and men, with Gandharvas and Apsarases, with wild and domestic animals, the vow belonging to my own self, dwelling in my own self, that is my entire vow. O Agni! I shall on all sides become this vow, svāhā'. With the hymn 'mine, O Agni, be the glory' (Rg. X. 128. 1) he should put fuel-sticks on fire one for each verse.⁹⁸⁴ He should stay for the night at a place where the people will do honour to him (by offering Madhuparka). Madhuparka will be dealt with under marriage.

The Baud. gr. paribhāṣā says (I. 14. 1) that the samāvartana rite for him who is only a vratasnātaka (and has not studied the Veda) is performed silently (i. e. without the mantras prescribed). The other gr̥hya sūtras have a similar procedure in samāvartana, only the mantras sometimes differ and a few details are added.

982. Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. I. 8. 16 says that the 'maṇi' is 'suvarṇamayā (made of gold). Āp. gr. 12. 8 speaks of 'maṇim sauvarṇam sopadhānam' (a golden bead with two precious stones on two sides).

983. This sūkta is a khila sūkta in the R̥gveda. It occurs in the आप. म. पृ. II. 8. It is in praise of gold.

984. Nārāyaṇa adds on Āśv. gr. III. 8. 16 that he should keep aside his shoes and then offer the fuel-stick. Stenzler conjectures अग्ने for अग्ने in आप. पृ. III. 9. 1, which is unwarranted and unnecessary. The sūkta Rg. X. 128 has nine verses. Nārāyaṇa says that there is to be homa with ten samidhs; the tenth verse, therefore, is the verse 'āyusyam' which is the first verse of the Khilasūkta after Rg. X. 128. The erstwhile student is to offer samidhs sitting and not standing and end the rite with the offering to Sviṣṭakṛt Agni.

For example, Śān. gr. (III. 1. 2) makes the student sit on bull's hide. Pār. gr. (II. 6) prescribes that eight jars full of water are to be placed on kuśa grass and water therefrom is to be poured over the head and the body of the student with certain mantras, that he is to worship the rising sun, to partake of curds or sesame seeds, to cleanse his teeth with an udumbara twig, he sees himself in a mirror (after adorning himself). Both Pār. and Gobhila (III. 4. 23) say that in this rite the girdle is taken off. Gobhila (III. 4. 31-34) says that at the end of the rite the student should mount a chariot drawn by oxen, drive some distance in an eastern or northern direction, should then come back to the teacher who honours him with madhuparka. Hir. gr. (I. 9. 10) says that the girdle, the staff and the black antelope skin that he wore as brahmācārī are to be thrown into water. The Laghu-Āśvalāyana-smṛti (14th section) appears to suggest that godāna and samāvartana take place on the same day and that at the end of the homa in samāvartana a student of the Rgveda should unloosen the girdle of muñja grass with the mantra 'ud uttamam mumugdhi' (Rg. I. 25. 21). It is for this reason that in the Maratha country samāvartana is called 'soḍmuñja' (rite in which the muñja girdle is taken away).

The sūtras more or less prescribe expressly or impliedly the same materials that are required by Āśvalāyana. Vide Bhār. gr. II. 18 (which enumerates them in one place), Baud. gr. paribhāṣā sūtra I. 13. 1.

Some of the sūtras specify the auspicious times when this rite is to be performed. Hir. gr. I. 9. 3 lays down that the proper time for snāna is during the northern course of the sun, in the bright half of a month when the moon is in conjunction with Rohiṇī, Mṛgaśīras, Tīṣya (Puṣya), Uttarā Phalgunī, Hasta, Citrā, or Viśākhā. The Baud. gr. paribhāṣā (I. 13. 3-9) omits Mṛgaśīras out of these, while Bhār. gr. (II. 18) omits Rohiṇī and Mṛgaśīras and adds Svāti. Medieval and modern digests add elaborate rules about the astrological details for the proper day of samāvartana, which are passed over here. Vide Saṃskāraprakāśa pp. 576-578 for some of these details.

Numerous rules are laid down in the smṛtis and digests about snātakas (snātakadharmāḥ). Many of these rules are applicable to gṛhasthas also (i. e. snātakas who have married). Those rules are too numerous to enumerate. But some idea may be conveyed by quoting in full the rules in Āśv. gr.

(III. 9. 6-7) which has the shortest treatment and adding a few interesting items from other works. Āśv. gr. (III. 9. 6-7) says 'He (the snātaka) should not bathe at night, nor bathe naked, nor lie down naked, he should not look at a naked woman except during intercourse, he shall not run when it rains, he should not climb up a tree, nor descend into a well, should not cross a river (by swimming) with his arms, he should not expose himself to a danger. A great being indeed is a snātaka—so it is known (from the śruti)'. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 11. 30. 6-I. 11. 32. 29), Vas. XII. 1-47, Gaut. IX, Yāj. I. 129-166, Manu IV. 13ff, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71, Pār. gr. II. 1 contain an exhaustive treatment of snātaka vratas. Some of these are concerned with the rules about anadhyāyas, about answering calls of nature, about persons whose food should not be taken, about sexual intercourse, about ācamana, about daily observances like the five mahāyajñas, about upākarma and utsarjana. These have been or will be dealt with in the appropriate places. A few of the other important rules of conduct are: a snātaka should always be pure (in body), should daily bathe and should apply fragrant unguents (like sandal-wood paste) to his body, should be always patient, persistent in his undertakings, self-restrained, generous and not disposed to cause injury to others (Gaut. 9. 7 and 73); he should speak the truth and also speak what is agreeable, but should not tell disagreeable truths, nor should he tell agreeable lies (Manu IV. 138 and Gaut. IX. 68); he should according to his ability try to make his day fruitful as regards the performance of meritorious acts, satisfaction of (legitimate) desires and acquisition of wealth, but he should look upon dharma as the principal of the three *puruṣārthas* (Gaut. IX. 46-47, Manu IV. 176, Yāj. I. 156), though he should avoid even what is allowed by the śāstras if it is hateful to the people; he should not beg (for his livelihood) of anybody except the king or his pupils, but when oppressed by hunger he may beg a little such as a cultivated or uncultivated field, a cow, goats and sheep, or gold, corn, food (Vas. XII. 2-3, Gaut. IX. 63-64, Manu IV. 33-34, Yāj. I. 130); but he should not beg of a king who is not of kṣatriya descent or who sets at naught the dictates of the śāstras (Manu IV. 84, 87) nor should he stay in the kingdom of a śūdra king (Manu IV. 61); he should not talk with the mlecchas, impure persons and irreligious persons (Gaut. IX. 17); he should not dwell in contact with sinners, cāṇḍālas and other untouchables, with fools or persons puffed up with the pride of wealth &c. (Manu IV. 79); he should

not be restless in his sexual desires or with his hands and feet, speech and eyes (Gaut. IX. 50, Manu IV. 177, Vas. VI. 42); he should go round (perform pradakṣiṇā), when he meets on his way a cow, images of gods, a brāhmaṇa, ghee, honey, a square, well-known trees (Manu IV. 39, Gaut. IX. 66); he should not engage in wordy quarrels with his parents, guests, brothers, sisters, persons connected by marriage, maternal uncles, dependents, relations, sacrificial and family priests, children, wife, slaves (Manu IV. 179-180=Śāntiparva 244, 14-16, Yāj. I. 157-158); he should carry a bamboo stick, a water jar, kuśa grass, wear two yajñopavītas, two garments (upper and lower) and two golden ear-rings (Manu IV. 36, Yāj. I. 133, Vas. XII. 14, 37-38); if he has money enough he should not wear old and dirty clothes, his garments should be white, he should not wear garments that are dyed and black cloth even when that is its natural colour (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30, 10-13, Manu IV. 34-35, Yāj. I. 131, Gaut. IX. 4-5) nor should he wear the clothes, shoes, and garland of another and if he wears these of another owing to poverty, he should thoroughly clean them (Gaut. IX. 6-7, Manu IV. 66); he should not allow his beard to grow unless there is some good ground to do so and should pare his nails (Gaut. IX. 8, Manu V. 35, Yāj. I. 131); while his shoes are in his hand he should not sit on a seat nor should he salute a person or bow to a deity (Gaut. IX. 45); he should not blow with his mouth to kindle fire (Manu IV. 53, Vas. XII. 27, Gaut. IX. 32); he should not hold simultaneously in his hands fire and water nor should he come between the fire and a brāhmaṇa nor between two brāhmaṇas without their permission (Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 12. 6-8, Vas. XII. 28-30); he should not eat food in the same plate with his wife, nor should he see his wife while she is eating or applying eye-salve or when she is yawning or sneezing (Manu IV. 43-44, Vas. XII. 31, Gaut. IX. 32); he should not use a seat or pādukas or tooth-brush made of palāśa (Vas. XII. 34, Gaut. IX. 44, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 32. 9); he should wear a wreath (of flowers) and ointment so as not to be easily noticed (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 32. 5, Manu IV. 72, Vas. 12. 39, Gaut. IX. 32); he should not see the sun rising or setting (Vas. 12. 10, Manu IV. 39, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 31. 20); he should not be *kulamāṅkula*⁹⁸⁵ and should not

985. कुलमांकुल is variously explained. ह्रद्वच on मौ. explains it as 'stay at home' and gives another's explanation as 'one' who leaves his family and goes to another i. e. studies another's sūtra' &c.

go over a rope by which a calf is tied (Vas. XII. 8-9, Gaut. IX. 52-53, Manu IV. 38); he is not to point out the rainbow to another when he sees it in the sky (Manu IV. 59) nor is he to employ the word 'Indradhanuḥ' for it, but the word 'mapidhanuḥ' (Vas. XII. 32-33, Gaut. IX. 23, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 31. 18); he is to employ certain euphemisms e. g. he should not speak of a cow that yields no milk as 'adhenu' but as 'dhenu-bhavyā' (who would become dhenu later on), he is not to employ the word 'bhadra' for a thing that is auspicious, but he should employ the words 'punya or praśasta'; what is not 'bhadra' he should speak of as 'bhadra' and should not use the word 'kapāla', but the word 'bhagāla' for it (Gaut. IX. 20-22, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 31. 11-14); he should not inform a person when a cow does some damage or allows her calf to have milk without the owner knowing it (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 31. 9-10, Gaut. IX. 24-25); he should enter or leave his village from the east or north (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 7) and should not enter a village or a guarded house by a by-path (Manu IV. 73, Yāj. I. 140, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 32. 23); at the two twilights he should be seated outside the village and should be silent (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 8); he should not wander about by day with the head covered, but he may do so at night or when answering calls of nature (Gaut. IX. 35-37; Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 14); he should avoid finding fault with a cow, a fee given or a maiden (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 31. 8); he should not resort⁹⁸⁶ to inferior men or to countries in which such persons abound nor should he frequent gambling houses or meetings of clubs (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 32. 18-20, Vas. XII. 40); he should try to dwell in a place that abounds in fuel, water and grass, kuśas, flowers, that has a court-yard, and is mostly peopled by Āryas, that has industrious and religious people (Gaut. IX. 65); he should take his food, answer calls of nature,

986. शुद्रान् शुद्राचरितान् देशान् न सेवेत् । सभाः समाजांश्च । आप. घ. I. 11. 32. 18-19. Compare आप. घ. सू. I. 1. 3. 12 सभाः समाजांश्चागन्ता (ब्रह्मचारी). समाज is defined in the कामसूत्र I. 4. 27 as 'पक्षस्य मासस्य वा प्रज्ञातेहनि सरस्वत्या भवने नियुक्तानां नित्यं समाजः । कुशीलवाश्चागन्तवः प्रेक्षणकर्मेषां द्युः ।' In the Rock Edict No. 1 at Girnar (C. I. I. vol. 1) Devānām Priya orders that no samāja be held as he saw grave faults in it 'न च समाजो कर्तव्यो बहुकं हि दोषं समाजं पसति देवानां प्रियो &c.' In the Nasik cave Inscription No. 2 Gotamīputa is described as समाजकारक (E. I. vol. VIII. p. 60), समाज may mean 'festival'. Vide Yāj. I. 84.

engage in dalliance with his wife, engage⁹⁸⁷ in *yoga* practices in a place screened from public view and he should guard his speech, intellect and strength and should keep his wealth and age very secret; but he should make public the repayment of a debt, a gift, mortgage or sale, the gift of his daughter in marriage, the letting loose of a bull (in *śrāddha*) and a sin done in secret.

Manu (XI. 203) says that the *prāyaścitta* for not observing the rules of conduct laid down for *snātakas* is fasting for a day. Haradatta on Gautama IX. 2 says that the rules for *snātakas* are meant for *brāhmaṇa* and *kṣatriya* *snātakas* only, that the *prāyaścitta* for non-observance is also to be undergone by them and that the *vaiśya* *snātakas* are not obliged to observe these rules.

In modern times *samāvartana* often takes place a short time after *upanayana* and sometimes on the 4th day thereafter or even the next day. As many *brāhmaṇas* do not learn any part of the *Veda*, *samāvartana* has become a mere matter of form in their case. Even the *Saṃskārakaustubha* (p. 607) prescribes a very brief procedure for *samāvartana* when the *brahmacārī* is ill. It consists in the *brahmacārī* giving up his girdle &c., in shaving the boy silently, in silently bathing at a holy place, putting on another garment, then sipping water twice, bringing fire from the house of a *śrotriya* and placing it on some place according to the rules, then contemplating on *Prajāpati* and putting the *samīd* (fuel-stick) on fire.

As a *brahmacārī* is not affected by the mourning due to the death of relatives (except his parents), on *samāvartana* he has to observe impurity for three days (if there have been deaths of relatives in the interval, but not for births). (Vide Manu V. 88=Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 87).

987. आहारनिर्हारविहारयोगाः सुसंवृता धर्मविदा तु कार्याः । वाग्बुद्धिवीर्याणि तप-
स्तथैव धनानुषीं युसतमे तु कार्ये ॥ वसिष्ठ VI. 9, आधुर्वित्तं गृहच्छिद्रं मन्त्रो मैथुनमौषधम् ।
पापकर्मापमानश्च धर्मो गोप्यानि यत्नतः ॥ अगोप्यमृणशुद्धिश्च दानाधमनावक्रयाः । कन्यादान
वृषोत्सर्गो रहः पापं जुगुप्सितम् ॥ दक्ष III. 15-16. All are quoted in the गृहस्थरत्नाकर
pp. 484-85.

CHAPTER VIII

ĀŚRAMAS

In the preceding pages several questions connected with *brahmacarya* have been dealt with. *Brahmacarya* is, according to the theory of the dharmasūtras and smṛtis, the first of the four āśramas. Therefore, before proceeding to the next saṃskāra, viz. vivāha (marriage) which is the starting point of the second āśrama, it is necessary to discuss the origin and development of the idea of āśramas.

From the times of the most ancient dharmasūtras the number of āśramas has been four, though there are slight differences in the nomenclature and in their sequence.⁹⁸⁸ Āp. Dh. S. II. 9. 21. 1 says 'there are four āśramas, viz. the stage of householder, (staying in) the teacher's house, stage of being a *muni*, the stage of being a forest dweller.' That here *mauna* stands for the āśrama of *saṃnyāsa* is clear from Āpastamba's own words in II. 9. 21. 7 (atha parivrājah) where he employs the word 'parivrāj' to indicate 'mauna.' Āp. places the householder first among the āśramas, probably on account of the importance of that stage to all other āśramas. Why he should mention the stage of forest hermit last is not clear. Gaut. also (III. 2) enumerates the four āśramas as brahmacārī, grhastha, bhikṣu and vaikhānasa. Here also Gaut. speaks of bhikṣu before vaikhānasa and Haradatta⁹⁸⁹ explains this departure from the usual sequence of āśramas as due to the words in Gaut. 28. 47 where we read 'prāg-uttamād traya āśramiṇaḥ' (persons belonging to the three āśramas except the last may constitute a *pariṣad*), i. e. to exclude vaikhānasa from the *pariṣad* he is mentioned last. Why the vānaprastha is called vaikhānasa will be discussed later on under the former word. Vas. Dh. S. (VII. 1-2) names the four āśramas as brahmacārī, grhastha, vānaprastha and parivrājaka.

988. Vide above p. 3 where āśramadharmas is said to be one of the six-fold divisions of dharma. चत्वार आश्रमा गार्हस्थ्यमाचार्यकुलं मौनं वानप्रस्थमिति । आप. ध. सू. II. 9. 21. 1. This is quoted by शंकर in his भाष्य on वेदान्तसूत्र III. 4. 47.

989. शास्त्रान्तरेषु वैखानसस्तृतीयो भिक्षुश्चतुर्थ आश्रमः । इह तु क्रमभेदः प्रायुक्तस्त्वय आश्रमिण इत्यत्र वैखानसवर्जनार्थः । हरदत्त on गौतम III. 2.

Vas. Dh. S. (in XI. 34) employs the word *yati* to denote a person in the fourth āśrama. Baud. Dh. S. (II. 6. 17) names the four āśramas in the same way as Vasiṣṭha and vouchsafes the interesting information that it was the *asura* Kapila, son of Prahlāda, who in his rivalry with the gods, made these distinctions to which a wise man should pay no heed. What Baud.⁹⁹⁰ means appears to be that there is really one āśrama viz. that of the householder, that Kapila devised the scheme of four āśramas, so that those who became vānaprasthas and parivrājakas would perform no yajñas and thereby the gods would lose the offerings they received from men and become less powerful. Manu VI. 87 speaks of the four āśramas, the last being called *yati* by him and also 'saṁnyāsa' (in VI. 96). It would thus be seen that a person who belongs to the last āśrama is variously called parivrāt or parivrājaka (one who does not stay in one place but wanders from place to place), bhikṣu (one who begs for his livelihood), *muni* (one who ponders over the mysteries of life and death), *yati* (one who controls his senses) These words suggest the various characteristics of the man who undertakes the fourth āśrama.

The theory of Manu about these āśramas is as follows. The span of human life is one hundred years (śatāyur vai puruṣaḥ). All do not live to that age, but that is the maximum age one can expect to reach. This should be divided into four parts. As one cannot know beforehand what age one is going to reach, it is not to be supposed that these four parts are each of 25 years. They may be more or less. As stated in Manu IV. 1 the first part of man's life is brahmacarya in which he learns at his teacher's house and after he has finished his study, in the second part of his life he marries and becomes a householder, discharges his debts to his ancestors by begetting sons and to the gods by performing yajñas (Manu V. 169). When he sees that his head has grey hair and that there are wrinkles on his body he resorts to the forest i. e. becomes a vānaprastha (Manu VI. 1-2). After spending the third part of his life in the forest for some time he spends the rest of his life as a saṁnyāsin⁹⁹¹ (Manu VI. 33). Similar rules are found

990. ऐकाग्र्यं त्वाचार्या अप्रजननत्वादितरेषाम् । तत्रोदाहरन्ति । माह्लादिर्वै कपिलो नामासुर आस स एतान्भेदोचकार देवैः सधर्मानस्तान्मनीषी नाद्रियेत । जी. ध. सू. II. 6. 29-31.

991. शङ्खलिखित as quoted by कुल्लुक on मनु VI. 33 say 'वनवासादूर्ध्वं शान्तस्य परिगतवयसः परिव्राज्यम्'. अपराकं p. 947. reads 'परिगतवयसः कामतः प्रव्रज्या'.

in many other smṛtis.⁹⁹² Baud. (Dh. S. II. 10. 5)⁹⁹³ states as his own opinion that the sages prescribe saṁnyāsa after the 70th year.

The word āsrama does not occur in the Saṁhitās or Brāhmaṇas. But this cannot be stretched to mean that the stages of life denoted by this word in the sūtras were unknown throughout the Vedic period. It has been shown above (p. 268) that the word brahmacārī occurs in the Rgveda and the Atharvaveda and that brahmacarya is mentioned in the Tai. S., the Śat. Br. and other ancient Vedic works. So the stage of brahmacarya was well-known in the remotest past. The fact that Agni is said to be 'the gr̥hapati in our house' (Rg. II. 1. 2)⁹⁹⁴ and the fact that in the famous verse (Rg. X. 85. 36) which is employed even to-day in the marriage ceremony the husband says to the bride when taking hold of her hand that the gods gave her to him for gr̥hapatya (for attaining the position of a house-owner or householder) establish that the second stage of the householder was well-known to the Rgveda. There is nothing in the Vedic Literature expressly corresponding to the vānaprastha. It may however be stated that the Tāṇḍya Mahābrāhmaṇa 14. 4. 7 says that vaikhānasa sages were the favourites of Indra and that one Rahasya Devamalimluc killed them in a place called Munimarana. Vaikhānasa means 'vānaprastha' in the sūtras and it is possible that this is the germ of the idea of vānaprastha. 'Yati' used in the sūtras and smṛtis to indicate the fourth āsrama of saṁnyāsa does occur in the oldest Vedic texts. But there the meaning appears to be different. In the Rg. the word 'yati' occurs several times. But the sense is doubtful. Rg. VIII. 3. 9 runs 'whereby'⁹⁹⁵ when wealth was bestowed on Bhṛgu and on yatis (or 'on Bhṛgu from yatis') you protected Praskaṇva'. Rg. VIII. 6. 18 reads 'O Indra, the yatis and those who were Bhṛgus praised thee'; Rg. X. 72. 7 says 'O gods,

992. E. g. vide अपरार्क p. 940 quoting two verses of Yama that are very similar to Manu V. 169 and VI. 2.

993. सप्तत्या ऊर्ध्वं संन्यासमुपदिशन्ति । बौ. ध. सू. II. 10. 5.

994. तवाग्ने होत्रं ब्रह्मा चासि गृहपतिश्च नो दमे ॥ ऋ. II. 1. 2.

995. येना यतिभ्यो भृगवे धने दिते येन प्रस्कण्वमाविथ । ऋ. VIII. 3. 9. Prof. Keith takes यति as connected with the Bhṛgus. It would be better to take यतिभ्यः as in the ablative. य इन्द्र यतयस्त्वा भृगवो ये च तुष्टुवुः । ऋ. VIII. 6. 18; सायण explains यतयः as नियताः अङ्गिरसः ; यद्देवा यतयो यथा भुवनान्यपिन्वत । अत्रा समुद्र आ गृहकृता दुर्यमजमर्तन ॥ ऋ. X. 72. 7; here सायण renders यतयः as मेधाः.

when you filled the worlds as the yatis (did) you brought the sun hidden in the sea'. In the Tai.⁹⁹⁶ S. VI. 2. 7. 5 we read 'Indra threw yatis to the sālāvṛkas (hyaenas or wolves), they devoured them to the south of the Uttaravedi.' The same words and story occur in the Kāthaka saṃhitā VIII. 5, the Ait. Br. 35. 2 (prādāt) and the Kauṣītaki Up. III. 1; in the last Indra said to Prataṛdana 'do know me only; I regard this as the most beneficial thing to man that he should know me. I killed the three-headed Tvāṣṭra, I gave to the sālāvṛkas the Arunmukha yatis.' In the Kāthaka saṃhitā (IV. 10) and the Tai. S. II. 4. 9. 2 it is stated that the heads of the yatis when they were being devoured fell aside and they (the heads) became the kharjūras (date palms). Atharvaveda II. 5. 3. says 'Indra, who is quick in his attack, who is Mitra and who killed Vṛtra as he did the yatis.' In the Tāṇḍya Mahābrāhmaṇa VIII. 1. 4 Bṛhadgiri is said to be one of the three yatis who escaped from slaughter and who were then taken under his protection by Indra. All these passages taken together suggest that the yatis were people who had incurred the hostility of Indra, the patron of the Āryas, that they were slaughtered by the Āryas with the help of Indra and their bodies were thrown to the wolves and that they seem to have something to do with a country where the date-palm grew and that a few of them who escaped slaughter subsequently were won over and became the worshippers of Indra (and therefore in Rg. VIII. 6. 18 they are described as praising Indra). So originally they were probably beyond the pale of the Vedic Aryans. If there is any connection between yati and yātu (sorcery) which seems possible, the yatis were probably non-vedic sorcerers.

In the Rg. X. 136. 2, there is a reference⁹⁹⁷ to munis, who are wind-girt and who put on brownish dirt (dirty garments). In Rg. VIII. 17. 14 Indra is said to be the friend of *munis* (Indro muninām sakṛhā) and in Rg. X. 136. 4 muni is said to be the friend of all gods. So it appears that even in the times of the Rgveda persons

996. इन्द्रो यतीन् सालावृकेभ्यः प्रायच्छत् । तै. सं. VI. 2. 7. 5. सहोवाच समेव विजानीद्येतदेवाहं मनुष्याय हिततमं मन्ये यन्मां विजानीयात् त्रिशिर्षाणं त्वाङ्गमहमहनम-रुन्मुखायतीन् सालावृकेभ्यः प्रायच्छत् । कौषी. ब्रा. उप. III. 1. अरुन्मुखान् is explained by शंकरानन्द as रुच्छद्दः वेदाध्ययनं तेन उपनिषद्वर्धविचारः ... स येषां सुखे नास्ति ते प्रयत्नवन्तश्चतुर्थाश्रमिणः. The words इन्द्रो यतीन् ... प्रायच्छत् are quoted by मेघातिथि on मनु XII. 48 and he gives the gloss of some as 'मेघनिवासिनः केचिज्जनपदा यतयो नाम'. यतीनामद्यसानानां शिर्षाणि परापतन् । ते खर्जूरा अभवन् । तै. सं. II. 4. 9. 2.

997. सुनयो वातरक्षानाः पिशङ्गा वसते मला । ऋ. X. 136. 2.

who led a life of poverty, contemplation and mortification were known, and were honoured and called munis, while persons corresponding to them among non-vedic people were probably called yatis. But in both these words there is no idea of a certain stage in a well-knit scheme of life. Perhaps the earliest reference to the four āśramas, though somewhat obscure, occurs in the Ait. Br. 33. 11 'what (use is there) of dirt, what use of antelope skin, what use of (growing) the beard, what is the use of *tapas*? O! brāhmaṇas! desire a son, he is a world that is to be highly praised.'⁹⁹⁸ Here it is clear that *ajina* refers to brahmacarya, śmaśrūpi to vānaprasthas (since according to Manu VI. 6 and Gaut. III. 33 the vānaprastha had to grow his hair, beard and nails). Therefore 'malam' and 'tapas' must be taken respectively as indicating the householder and the saṁnyāsin. A much clearer reference to three āśramas occurs in the Chāndogya⁹⁹⁹ Up. II. 23. 1 'there are three branches of dharma, the first (is constituted by) sacrifice, study and charity (i. e. by the stage of householder), the second is (constituted by the performance of) *tapas* (i. e. the vānaprastha), the third is the brahmacārī staying in the house of his teacher and wearing himself out till death in the teacher's house; all these attain to the worlds of the meritorious; but one who (has correctly understood *brahma*) and abides in it attains immortality'. *Tapas* is a characteristic of both vānaprastha and parivrājaka. Therefore in this passage it is possible to hold that the three āśramas (of student, householder and vānaprastha) are mentioned. The last clause about 'brahmasamstha' differentiates the three āśramas from him who has knowledge

998. किं तु मलं किमजिनं किमु श्मश्रूणि किं तपः । पुत्रं ब्रह्माण इच्छन् स वै लोको वदावदः । ऐ. ब्रा. 33. 11. मलं probably refers to sexual intercourse. तपः may indicate the वानप्रस्थ (गौतम III. 25 वैखानसो वने मूलफलानी तपःशीलः) or संन्यासिन (Manu VI. 75 requires a संन्यासिन to undergo severe *tapas*).

999. त्रयो धर्मस्कन्धा यज्ञोध्ययनं दानमिति प्रथमस्तप एव द्वितीयो ब्रह्मचार्याचार्यकुलचारी तृतीयोऽत्यन्तमात्मानमाचार्यकुलेऽवसाद्यन्सर्वे एते पुण्यलोका भवन्ति ब्रह्मसंस्थोऽमुतत्वमेति । छान्दोग्य II. 23. 1. It is worthy of note that इंकर explains तपः as 'तप इति कृच्छ्रचान्द्रायणादि तद्वास्तापसः परिव्राड् वा न ब्रह्मसंस्थः आश्रमधर्मेमात्रसंस्थो ब्रह्मसंस्थस्य त्वमुतत्वश्रवणात्'; while on Vedānta-sūtra III. 4. 20 he disapproves of the view that by the word 'tapas' the parivrājaka also is meant. This passage of the Chān. Up. is the basis of Vedāntasūtra III. 4. 18-20. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 55 quotes this passage of the Chāndogya and remarks that it is the parivrājaka who is brahmasamstha that is referred to in the last part of the passage 'परिशिष्यात्परिव्राजकस्यैव ब्रह्मसंस्थस्य सुकिलक्षणादमुतत्वमातिरिहिता'.

of brahma and holds fast by it. That portion says that the consequence of the knowledge of brahma is immortality; but it does not say expressly or impliedly that the stage of parivrājaka is a means of attaining the knowledge of brahma. So one may doubt whether saṁnyāsa as an āśrama is spoken of here, but there can be no doubt that the other three are clearly indicated here. Probably in the time of the Chāndogya there was no clear line of demarcation between the āśramas of *vānaprastha* and *saṁnyāsa* and they rather coalesced into each other. Chān. Up. V. 10. 1 and Br. Up. VI. 2. 15 support this conclusion¹⁰⁰⁰. In the Br. Up. III. 5. 1 there is a reference to brāhmaṇas who on apprehending correctly the Supreme Spirit turn away from the desires of progeny, wealth and of securing holy worlds and practise begging. Begging is a characteristic of saṁnyāsa in the sūtras. Yājñavalkya in the Br. Up. IV. 5. 2. tells his wife Maitreyī that he was going into a life of *pravrajyā* from being a householder. Muṇḍaka Up. I. 2. 11 refers to begging for him who has knowledge of brahma and Muṇḍaka III. 2. 6 mentions 'saṁnyāsa'. In the Jābālopaniṣad¹⁰⁰¹ (4) it is said that Janaka asked Yājñavalkya to expound *saṁnyāsa* and then the four āśramas are distinctly set out 'after finishing the stage of student-hood, one should become a householder; after becoming a householder one should become a forest-dweller, after being a forest-dweller, one should renounce the world; or he may do otherwise viz. he may renounce the world after the stage of student-hood itself or after being an householder or from the forest. The very day on which he becomes desireless, he should renounce the world (become a saṁnyāsin)'. Probably this passage¹⁰⁰² was not

1000. तद्य इत्थं विदुर्ये चेमेऽरण्ये श्रद्धा तप इत्युपासते तेऽर्चिषमभिस्तभवन्ति... स एनान् ब्रह्म गमयत्येष देवयानः पन्थाः। छा. उप. V. 10. 1. शंकर explains 'ये चेमे... पासते' as 'ये चारण्योपलक्षिता वैखानसाः परिव्राजकाश्च;' एवं वै तमात्मानं विदित्वा ब्राह्मणाः पुत्रैषणायाश्च वित्तैषणायाश्च लोकैषणायाश्च ह्युत्थायाश्च भिक्षाचर्यं चरन्ति। बृह. उप. III. 5. 1.

1001. ब्रह्मचर्यं परिसमाप्य गृही भवेद् गृही भूत्वा वनी भवेद्वनी भूत्वा प्रव्रजेत्। यदि वेतरथा ब्रह्मचर्यादेव प्रव्रजेद्गृहाद्वा वनाद्वा। यदहरेव विरजेत्तदहरेव प्रव्रजेत्। जाबालोप. 4. Vide बौ. ध. सू. II. 10. 2 and 18 सोऽत एव ब्रह्मचर्यवान्प्रव्रजतीत्येकेषाम्। आश्रमाद्वा-अमनुषनीय ब्रह्मपूतो भवतीति विज्ञायते। These sūtras probably have in view the जाबालोप. 4 or some other similar Upaniṣad passage.

1002. शंकर remarks on Vedāntasūtra III. 4. 20 'अनपेक्ष्यैव जाबालश्चिन्माश्रमान्तरविधायिनीमयमाचार्येण विचारः प्रवर्तितः। तपःप्रभावाद् देवप्रसादाच्च ब्रह्म ह श्वेताश्वतरोश्च विद्वान्। अत्याश्रमिभ्यः परमं पवित्रं प्रोवाच सम्मथयिषिस्तुष्टम्। श्वेता. उप. VI. 21. The meaning of अत्याश्रमिभ्यः is doubtful. शंकराचार्य explains अत्यन्तं पूज्यतमाश्रमिभ्यः. नारायण in the दीपिका reads अन्त्याश्रमिभ्यः.

before the author of the Vedāntasūtra or he did not regard the Jābālopaniṣad as very authoritative; otherwise there would hardly have been any need for the Vedāntasūtrakāra (in the Vedāntasūtra III. 4. 18-20) to hold a discussion on Chāndogya II. 23. 1.

It is clear that in the times of the earliest Upaniṣads at least three (if not four) āśramas were known and that all four were known by their specific names to the Jābālopaniṣad. In the Śvetāśvataropaniṣad (VI. 21) we have the word 'atyāśramibhyaḥ'. It is said there that the sage Śvetāśvātara, who acquired knowledge of Brahma, proclaimed the knowledge to those who had risen above the mere observances of āśramas.

No scholar Eastern or Western places Pāṇini later than 300 B. C. He knew Bhikṣu-sūtras composed by Pārāśarya and Karmanda¹⁰⁰³ and he tells us that the word 'maskarin'¹⁰⁰⁴ means parivrājaka. As sūtra works about 'bhikṣus' were composed before Pāṇini, this āśrama of bhikṣus must have been an established institution centuries before Pāṇini. Buddhism took over this mode of life (*pabbajjā* as the Pāli works say) from the brahmanical system.

It has been already stated at p. 8 that the goals of existence were deemed to be four, viz. dharma, artha, kāma and mokṣa. The highest goal was *mokṣa*. All ancient Indian philosophy (whether Vedānta, Sāṃkhya or Nyāya) held that liberation from the never-ending cycle of births and deaths, and escape from the three kinds of *duḥkha* were the highest good. The *summum bonum* consisted in non-return (*anāvṛttiḥ*) to the world of pleasures and sorrows. The Chān. Up.¹⁰⁰⁵ VIII. 15. 1 winds up with the words 'and he does not return'. The Br. Up. VI. 2. 15, Praśna Up. I. 10 and others say the same. This supreme goal had fascinated all noble minds in whatever sphere of life they might have been working. The greatest poet and dramatist of classical Sanskrit ends his most famous drama (the Śākuntala) with the prayer 'may self-existent God Śiva destroy for me rebirth'.¹⁰⁰⁶ This state of liberation or release is variously called *mokṣa* or *mukti*, *amṛtatva*, *niḥśreyasa*,

1003. पाराशर्यशिलालिभ्यां भिक्षुनदसूत्रयोः । कर्मन्दकुशाश्वादिभिः । पाणिनि IV. 3. 110-111.

1004. मस्करमस्करिणौ वेणुपतिव्राजकयोः । पाणिनि VI. 1. 154.

1005. न च पुनरावर्तते । छान्. उ. VIII. 15. 1.

1006. यमापि च क्षपयतु नीललोहितः पुनर्भवं पारितोषाकिरात्मभूः ॥ शाकुन्तल VII.

kaivalya (by the Sāṃkhyas) or apavarga (Nyāyasūtra I. 1. 2). For attaining this state man must know and realize that there is only one Reality underlying all existence (and no plurality) and become disgusted with the passions and temptations of the world i. e. he must have *nirveda* and *vairāgya* (as stated in the Br. Up. III. 5. 1 or Muṇḍaka I. 2. 12). Merely reading from the books that desirelessness is necessary for release and immediately giving up the world would not serve the purpose. The man would be hankering, as the Bhagavadgītā says, after pleasures he has renounced. Therefore the ancient Indian writers devised according to their lights a scheme which is embodied in the theory and practice of the āśramas. In brahmacharya the individual goes through the discipline of the will and the emotions, makes himself acquainted with the literary treasures of the past and learns obedience, respect, plain living and high thinking. Then he marries, becomes a householder, tastes the pleasures of the world, enjoys life, has sons, discharges his duties to his children, to his friends, relatives and neighbours and becomes a useful, industrious and worthy citizen, the founder of a family. It is supposed that by the time he is fifty years or so he has become convinced of the futility of human appetites and the pleasures of the world and is, therefore, called upon to resort to a forest life for pondering over the great problem of the life hereafter and to accustom himself to self-abnegation, austerities and a harmless life. This would lead on to the last stage, viz. saṃnyāsa. He may succeed in this very life in realizing the supreme goal of mokṣa or he may have to continue to rise in spiritual height until after several births and deaths the goal is in view. The theory of varṇa dealt with man as a member of the Aryan society and laid down what his rights, functions, privileges, responsibilities and duties were as a member of that society. It was addressed to man in the mass. The theory of āśramas addressed itself to the individual. It tells him what his spiritual goal is, how he is to order his life and what preparations are required to attain that goal. The theory of āśramas was truly a sublime conception and if owing to the exigencies of the times, the conflicts of interests and distractions of life, the scheme could not even in ancient times be carried out fully by every individual and seems to have failed in modern times, the fault does not lie with the originators of this conception. Deussen was constrained to say (in E. R. E. under āśrama) 'how far the practice corresponded to this theory given in

Manu and other law books, we do not know; but we are free to confess that in our opinion the whole history of mankind has not much that equals the grandeur of this thought' and again in 'The Philosophy of the Upanisads' (tr. by Geden, 1906) p. 367 'the entire history of mankind does not produce much that approaches in grandeur to this thought'.

The three āśramas of householder, forest hermit and saṁnyāsa will be dealt with in detail hereafter. Only one question about āśramas in general remains to be discussed. With reference to the four āśramas, there are three different points of view (pakṣas) viz. *samuccaya* (orderly co-ordination), *vikalpa* (option) and *bādha* (annulment or contradiction). Those who hold the first view (*samuccaya*) say that a person can resort to the four āśramas one after another in order and that he cannot drop any one or more and pass on to the next nor can he resort to the householder's life after becoming a saṁnyāsin (vide Dakṣa I. 8-9, Vedāntasūtra III. 4. 40) e. g. a man cannot take saṁnyāsa immediately after brahmacarya. Manu (IV. 1, VI. 1. 33-37, 87-88) is the prime supporter of this view. The first part of the Jābālopaniṣad quoted above refers to this view. This view does not regard marriage and sexual life as impure or inferior to asceticism and on the contrary places it on a higher plane than asceticism. On the whole the tendency of most of the dharmaśāstra works is to glorify the status of an householder and push into the background the two āśramas of vānaprastha and saṁnyāsa, so much so that certain works say that these are forbidden in the Kali age. The second view is that there is an option after brahmacarya i. e. a man may become a *parivrājaka* immediately after he finishes his study or immediately after the householder's way of life. This view is put forward by the Jābālopaniṣad as an alternative to the first view of *samuccaya*. This is the view also of Vasistha VII. 3, Laghu Viṣṇu III. 1, and Yaj. III. 56. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 9. 21. 7-8 and II. 9. 22. 7-8) seems to favour this view. The third view of *bādha* is held by the ancient dharmaśāstras of Gautama¹⁰⁰⁷ and Baudhāyana. They hold that there is really one āśrama viz. that of the householder (brahmacarya being only preparatory to it) and that the other āśramas are inferior to that of the householder. Vide Gautama (III. 1 and 35) where he first

1007. तस्याश्रमविकल्पमेके ब्रुवते । एकाश्रमं त्वाचार्या प्रत्यक्षविधानाद्गार्हस्थ्यस्य ।
नौ. III. 1 and 35.

refers to the view about *vikalpa* (option) and emphatically says that there is only one *āśrama*. Manu VI. 89-90, III. 77-80, Vas. Dh. S. VIII. 14-17, Dakṣa II. 57-60, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 59. 29 and many others praise the *āśrama* of householder as the highest. Baud. Dh. S. (II. 6. 29 ff) says the same as Gautama and it relies¹⁰⁰⁸ upon the fact that the *āśramas* other than that of householder do not beget offspring and quotes Vedic passages viz. 'may we, O Agni, attain immortality through progeny' (Ṛg. V. 4. 10 = Tai. S. I. 4. 46. 1) and 'a brāhmaṇa when born is born involved in three debts, viz. he owes brahmacarya to the sages, sacrifice to the gods, and progeny to pitṛs' (Tai. S. VI. 3. 10. 5). According to Brahmasūtra III. 4. 18 Jaimini held this view, while Bādarāyaṇa seems to have been of the opinion that all *āśramas* are enjoined (ibid. III. 4. 19-20). Those who hold this view (*bādha*) rely on such Vedic passages¹⁰⁰⁹ as 'one should offer agnihotra as long as life lasts' or 'indeed Agnihotra is a *satra* (sacrificial session) that lasts till one dies by old age' (Śat. Br. XII. 4. 1. 1), 'one should desire to live a hundred years performing religious acts' (Vāj. S. 40. 2), 'after bringing to the teacher wealth desired by him, do not cut off the thread of progeny' (Tai. Up. I. 11. 1). The Mīt. on Yāj. III. 56 sets out these three views and says that each is supported by Vedic texts and one may follow any one of the three. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 9. 21. 2) held the view that whatever *āśrama* out of the four one followed, one attained happiness if one performed its duties according to the *śāstra* and after a lengthy discussion Āp. arrives at the conclusion that there is no distinction due to superiority among the four *āśramas*¹⁰¹⁰. There were some who thought that the householder's life was the rule and the other *āśramas* were for the blind and other incapable persons. The Mīt. on Yāj. III. 56 refutes this view.

The word *āśrama* is derived¹⁰¹¹ from 'śram' to exert, to labour and etymologically means 'a stage in which one exerts oneself'.

1008. ऐकाश्रमं त्वाचार्या अप्रजननत्वादितरेषाम् । ...प्रजाभिरग्ने असुतत्वमश्याम् जायमानो वै ब्राह्मणस्त्रिभिर्ऋणवा जायते ब्रह्मचर्येण विभ्यो यज्ञेन देवेभ्यः प्रजया पितृभ्य इति । बौ. ध. II. 6. 29, 42-43.

1009. एतद्वै जरामर्थं सत्रं यदग्निहोत्रम् । इतपथ XII. 4. 1. 1; कुर्वन्नेवेह कर्माणि जिजीविषेच्छतः समाः । ईशावास्योप० 2.

1010. तेषु सर्वेषु यथोपदेशमव्यग्रो वर्तमानः क्षेमं गच्छति । आप. ध. सू. II. 9. 21. 2 and '..... न तु तज्ज्येष्ठमाश्रमाणां ।' आप. ध. II. 9. 24. 14.

1011. आश्रम्यन्ति अस्मिन् इति आश्रमः । From this sense arose the meaning of 'hermitage'.

Commentators like Sarvajña-Nārāyaṇa on Manu VI. 35. endeavour to bring about reconciliation between the three views set out above as follows: the view that a man may pass on to *saṁnyāsa* immediately after the period of student-hood (without being a householder) applies only to those men who are, owing to the impressions and effects of restrained conduct in past lives, entirely free from desires and whose tongue, sexual appetites, belly and words are thoroughly under control; the prescriptions of Manu enjoining on men not to resort to *saṁnyāsa* without paying off the three debts are concerned with men whose appetites have not yet thoroughly been brought under control and the words of Gautama that there is only one *āśrama* (that of the house-holder) relate only to those whose appetites for worldly pleasures and pursuits are quite keen.

CHAPTER IX

MARRIAGE

This is the most important of all saṁskāras. Throughout the ages for which literary tradition is available in India marriage has been highly thought of. The several words that are employed to denote the idea of marriage indicate one or more of the elements of the saṁskāra of marriage. Such words are *udvāha* (taking the girl out of her parental home), *vivāha* (taking the girl away in a special way or for a special purpose i. e. for making her one's wife), *parinaya* or *parinayana* (going round i. e. making a *pradakṣiṇā* to fire.), *upayama* (to bring near and make one's own), and *pānigrahaṇa* (taking the hand of the girl). Though these words express only one component element of the rite of marriage they are all used in the *sāstras*¹⁰¹² to indicate the totality of the several acts that go to make up the ceremony of marriage. The word '*vivāha*' occurs in the Tai. S. VII. 2. 37 and Ait. Br. (27. 5). In the *Tāndya*¹⁰¹³ *Mahābrāhmaṇa* VII. 10. 1 it is said that "heaven and earth were once together but they became separate"; then they said 'let us bring about a marriage, let there be a co-operation between us'.

Before dwelling upon the various aspects of marriage, the question, whether our authorities point to a state of society when there was no institution of marriage, but there was only promiscuity, requires to be considered. The Vedic works contain no indications about a society in which the relations of the sexes were promiscuous and unregulated. In the *Mahābhārata*,¹⁰¹⁴ however, Pāṇdu is made to state to his queen Kuntī that women in former ages were under no control, indulged themselves as they liked and that they left off one man and

1012. एवमुपयमनपाणिग्रहणशब्दवत्परिणयनशब्दोऽपि दृष्टिग्यायेनैव कर्मसंयुदाये शास्त्रेषु प्रयुज्यते । अपराक्त p. 91.

1013. इमौ वै लोकौ सहास्तां तौ विन्यस्तावधृतां विवाहं विवहावहै सह नावस्त्विति । ताण्ड्य. VII. 10. 1.

1014. Vide आदिपर्व chap. 122 (chap. 113 of cr. ed. Poona). Some of the verses may be quoted 'अनावृताः किल पुरा स्त्रिय आसन् वरानने । कामचार-विहायिन्यः स्वतन्त्राश्चावहासिनि ॥ 4 ... उत्तरेषु च रम्भोर कुरुष्वयापि वर्तते । 7; सभापर्व 31. 37-38 'बभूवुरनतिद्याह । योषितश्छन्दतः किल । एवमश्विरैव प्रादत् स्त्रीणामप्रतिवारणे ॥'

went after another, that this state of things continued to his (Pāṇdu's) day in the country of Uttara Kuru, that it was Śvetaketu, son of Uddālaka, who for the first time stopped all this license and laid down the rule that if a woman proved false to her husband or if a husband was false to a chaste wife, very grave sin would be incurred. In the Sabhāparva (31. 37-38) it is said that through the favour of Agni women in Māhiṣmati did what they liked and could not be restrained. These passages cannot be relied upon for proving promiscuity of intercourse. In the first place, the country of Uttara Kuru is more or less mythical. This passage rather gives expression to what the poet imagined about remotest ages and not what he knew was the real state of society thousands of years before him. The theory of an original state of promiscuity once advanced by several sociologists has now ceased to be respectable (vide Mrs. M. Cole in 'Marriage, past and present' p. 10.

The purpose of marriage, even according to the R̥gveda, was to enable a man, by becoming a householder, to perform sacrifices to the gods and to procreate sons. The verse in R̥g. X. 85. 36 shows that the husband took a woman as a wife for 'gārhapatya'. R̥g. V. 3. 2., V. 28. 3 speak of the co-operation of husband and wife in the worship of gods. R̥g. III. 53. 4 contains the emphatic assertion 'the wife herself is the home' (jāyēd-astam). In later literature also the same statement occurs. A wife was called 'jāyā', because the husband was born in the wife as a son (Ait. Br. 33. 1). The Śat. Br. V. 2. 1. 10 says 'the wife¹⁰¹⁵ is indeed half of one's self; therefore as long as a man does not secure a wife so long he does not beget a son and so he is till then not complete (or whole); but when he secures a wife he gets progeny and then he becomes complete'. The Ait. Ār. (I. 2. 4) says 'therefore a man, after securing a wife, regards himself as more complete'. When Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 12 forbids taking a second wife if the first is endowed with progeny and the performance of religious rites, it indicates

1015. अर्धो ह वा एष आत्मनो यज्जाया तस्माद्यावज्जायां न विन्दते नैव तावत्प्रजायते असर्वो हि तावद्भवति । अथ यदेव जायां विन्दतेऽथ प्रजायते तर्हि हि सर्वो भवति । शतपथ ब्रा. V. 2. 1. 10. Vide शतपथ VIII. 7. 2. 3. also. The words अर्धो वा एष आत्मनो यत्पत्नी occur in तै. सं. VI. 1. 8. 5. तस्मात् पुरुषो जायां विश्वा कृत्स्नतरमिवात्मानं मन्यते । ऐ. आ. I. 2. 5. न गृहं गृहमित्याहुर्गृहिणी गृहमुच्यते । शान्तिपर्व 144. 66 ; अर्थ भार्या मनुष्यस्य भार्या श्रेष्ठतमः सखा । भार्या मूलं त्रिवर्णस्य भार्या मूलं त्रिवर्णतः ॥ आदिपर्व 74. 40 ; आत्माये स्मृतितन्त्रे च लोकाचारे च स्मृतिभिः । शरीरायै स्तुता भार्या पुण्यावश्यकले समा ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by अपराक्ष p. 740.

that the main purposes of marriage are two,¹⁰¹⁶ viz. the wife enables a man to perform religious rites and is the mother of a son or sons who were supposed to save a man from hell. Manu (IX. 28) states that on the wife depend the procreation of sons, the performance of religious rites, service, highest pleasure, heaven for oneself and for one's ancestors. So these three viz. *dharmaśampatti*, *prajā* (and consequent freedom from falling into hell) and *rati* (sexual and other pleasures) are the principal purposes of marriage according to the *smṛtis* and *nibandhas*. Yāj. I. 78 is to the same effect. Jaimini (VI. 1. 17 ff) establishes that husband and wife have to perform sacrifices together and not separately and Āp. Dh. S.¹⁰¹⁷ II. 6. 13. 16-17 emphatically says that there can be no separation between husband and wife, for since marriage they have to perform religious acts jointly.

Marriage is a composite rite comprising several subordinate elements which have to be done in a certain order and the last of which is seeing the constellation of the seven sages; it (rite) brings about the status of a woman as a person's wife.¹⁰¹⁸

The first consideration is: how to choose a bridegroom and what qualifications make a person a very desirable bridegroom. Āśv. gr. (I. 5. 2) says 'one should give a maiden¹⁰¹⁹ (in marriage) to a man endowed with intelligence'. The Āp. gr. (3. 20) remarks "the accomplishments of a bridegroom are that he must be endowed with good family, a good character, auspicious characteristics, learning and good health". Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 12 states 'a maiden should be given in marriage to one who is endowed with good qualities and who is a celibate (till then)'. Even the Śākuntala (IV) echoes the words of

1016. धर्मप्रजासंपत्ते दारे नान्यां कुर्वीत । आप. ध. II. 5. 11. 12; the *mita* on वा. I. 78 quotes this and remarks 'तथा चापस्तम्बेन धर्मप्रजासंपत्तिः प्रयोजनं दारसंग्रहस्योक्तं धर्मे...कुर्वीति वदता । रतिकलं तु लौकिकमेव' ।

1017. जायापत्योर्न विभागो विद्यते । पाणिग्रहणाद्धि सहस्रं कर्मसु । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 13. 16-17.

1018. कः पुनरयं विवाहो नाम । उपायतः प्राप्तायाः कन्याया दारकरणार्थः संस्कारः सेतिकर्तव्याङ्कः सप्तविद्वर्शनपर्यन्तः पाणिग्रहणलक्षणः । मेधा० on मनु III. 20; तेन भार्या-त्वसंपादकं ग्रहणं विवाहः । रघुनन्दन in उद्वाहतरव.

1019. बुद्धिमते कन्यां प्रयच्छेत् । आश्व. सू. I. 5. 2; दद्याद्गृणवते कन्यां नशिकां ब्रह्म-चारिणे । बौ. ध. IV. 1. 20; बन्धुशीललक्षणसंपन्नः श्रुतवानरोग इति वरसंपत् । आप. सू. I. 3. 20; गृणवते कन्यका प्रतिपादनीयेत्ययं तावत्प्रथमः संकल्पः । शाकुन्तल IV (said by अनसूया) ; कुलं च शीलं च वयुर्वैश्वर्यं विद्यां च वित्तं च सनाथतां च । एतान्युणास्तस्य परीक्ष्य देवा कन्या बुधैः शोभन्निन्तनीयम् ॥ यम in स्मृतिच. I. p. 78.

Baudhāyana 'the best idea is to give one's daughter to a man endowed with good qualities'. Yama quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 78) says 'one should seek for seven qualities in a bridegroom viz. good family, good character, bodily appearance, fame, learning, wealth and support (of relatives and friends); the other matters need not be considered'. Brhat-parāśara (p. 118 Jiv. ed.) enumerates eight qualities in a bridegroom viz. caste, learning, youth, strength, health, support of many (friends &c.), ambitions (arthitva), and possession of wealth. Āśv. gr. (I. 5. 1) and others place kula (a good family) in the forefront in the case of both the bride and the bridegroom.¹⁰²⁰ 'One should first examine the family (of the intended bride or bridegroom) as it has been said above (in the Āśv. Śrauta sūtra IX. 3).' The Āśv. Śrauta reads 'those who on their mother's as well as their father's side through ten generations are endowed with learning, austerity and meritorious works or whose pure brāhmaṇa lineage can be traced on both sides (for ten generations) or according to some on the father's side.' Manu regarded a good family as the most important from the eugenic point of view. In IV. 244 he says 'one who desires to raise his family to excellence and eminence should always enter into marriage alliances with the best and avoid alliance with the low'; and adds (III. 6-7) that ten kinds of families even though richly endowed with cattle, wealth &c. should be avoided in marriage, viz. in which the saṁskāras are not performed, in which there is no male progeny, which are devoid of Veda (study); which have hairy members, that suffer from piles or consumption or indigestion, or epilepsy, white or black leprosy. Manu (III. 63-65) explains under what circumstances good families are reduced to a bad state. Hārita states that the offspring is in accordance with the (qualities of the) family of the parents. The Harṣacarita (IV) gives expression to the view that generally the wise look to good family first even though there may be other qualities in the bridegroom. Manu II. 238, however, allows a man to marry a girl even from an inferior or bad family provided she is a jewel among women.

1020. कुलमग्रे परीक्षित ये मातुतः पितृतश्चेति यथोक्तं पुरस्तात् । आश्व. गृ. I. 5. 1; आश्व. श्रौ. सू. IX. 3. is 'ये मातुतः पितृतश्च दशपुरुषं समनुष्ठिता विद्यातपोभ्यां पुण्यैश्च कर्मभिरेवाहुमयतो वा ब्राह्मण्यं निनयेयुः पितृतश्चैकैः' । These qualifications were laid down for those who were to partake of the camasa offering in Rājasaṁyā. कुलानुसाराः प्रजाः समवन्ति । हारीत quoted in संस्कारप्रकाश p. 589; मायेण च सत्सद्व्यवहारेषु वरगुणेष्वभिजनमेवाहुस्तुल्यन्ते धीमन्तः । हर्षच. IV.

Yāj. (I. 54-55) emphasizes the importance of a good family famed for ten generations and freedom from diseases that are hereditarily transmitted and adds that the bridegroom must be young, intelligent, a favourite among the people and his virility must be carefully tested. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 55 quotes Nārada (stripuṃśa) who mentions some characteristics of the virile man and enumerates fourteen varieties of impotent persons (verses 11-13). Kātyāyana¹⁰²¹ mentions what defective bridegrooms are to be avoided viz. the lunatic, one guilty of grave sins, leprous, impotent, one of the same *gotra*, one bereft of eyesight or hearing, an epileptic and adds that these defects are to be avoided even among brides. The Mahābhārata observes 'friendship and marriage should take place between those alone whose wealth is similar and whose learning (i. e. the learning in whose families) is of equal status, not between opulent (well-off) and the poverty-stricken'.¹⁰²²

Though Manu and Yāj. indicate that impotent persons are not eligible for marriage, yet such persons rarely married. Their marriages were held valid by Manu, Yāj. and others and their sons (by *niyoga*) took property as if they were *aurasa* sons. Vide Manu IX. 203 and Yāj. II. 141-142.

The Samskāraprakāśa (pp. 752-754) contains a long discussion on the question how from bodily characteristics one can find whether a man will live long or what his prospects would be. These are passed over for want of space.

Rules for the selection of the bride are far more elaborate than those for selecting a bridegroom, though in some respects they are the same (such as about the necessity of good family, about the absence of diseases &c.). Vide Vas I. 38, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 11, Kāmasūtra III. 1. 2.¹⁰²³ Even the Śat. Br. (I. 2. 5. 16)

1021. उन्मत्तः पतितः कुष्टी तथा षण्डः स्वगोत्रजः । चक्षुःश्रोत्रविहीनश्च तथापस्मार-
दूषितः । वरदोषाः स्मृता ह्येते कन्यादोषाश्च क्लीप्तिताः । स्मृतिश्च I. p. 59; the text of
नारद (ed. by Jolly, स्त्रीपुंसयोग v. 37) is उन्मत्तः पतितः क्लीबो दुर्भगस्त्यक्तवान्धवः ॥
कन्यादोषौ च यौ पूर्ववेष दोषमणौ वरे ॥

1022. अयोरेव समं वित्तं ययोरेव समं श्रुतम् । तयोर्मैत्री विवाहश्च न तु पुष्टविपुष्टयोः ॥
आदिपर्व 131. 10; compare उद्योगपर्व 33. 117 समैर्विवाहं कुरुते न हीनैः समैः सख्यं
व्यवहारं कथां च ।

1023. तस्मात्कन्यामभिजनोपेतां मातापितृमतीं त्रिवर्षात्प्रभृतिन्यूनवयसं श्लाघ्याचारै
धनवति पक्षवति कुले संबन्धिमिये संबन्धिमिराकुले प्रसूतां प्रभृतमातापितृपक्षां रूपशीललक्षण-
संपन्नान्धुनाधिकाविनष्टदन्तनखकर्णकेशाक्षिस्तनीमरोगिप्रकृतिशरीरां तथाविध एव श्रुतवाञ्छ
शीलयेत् । कामसूत्र III. 1. 2.

gives expression to the then view that broad hips and slender waists make women attractive. Āśv. gr. I. 5. 3 says ¹⁰²⁴ 'one should marry a girl who is endowed with intelligence, beauty, a good character and auspicious characteristics and who is healthy'. Śān. gr. I. 5. 6 and Manu III. 4 and Yāj. I. 52 also require that the girl should be possessed of auspicious characteristics (or indications). These (lakṣaṇas) are of two kinds, bāhya (visible or bodily characteristics) and ābhyantara (invisible). Āp. gr. ¹⁰²⁵ (III. 21) states a commonsense rule: 'a girl on whom his mind and eyes are riveted will bring him happiness (or prosperity), he should pay no heed to other things; this is the view of some'. The Kāmasūtra quotes the view of Ghoṭakamukha 'he should proceed to marry a girl on taking whom as his wife he would regard himself as blessed and would not be blamed by his friends (or persons in a similar station in life)' ¹⁰²⁶. Manu III. 8 and 10, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 12-16 say that one should not marry a girl having tawny hair or having an excessive limb (such as a sixth finger) or a deficient limb, who is hairless or very hairy, who is talkative and has yellowish eyes; but should marry a girl who has limbs void of any defect, whose gait is like that of a swan or an elephant, the hair on whose head or body is of slight growth and whose teeth are small, whose body is delicate. The Viṣṇu-purāṇa (III. 10. 18-22) adds that the girl must not have a marked growth of hair on her chin or lip, her voice must not be hoarse or like that of a crow; her legs and ankles must not be very hairy, there should be no dimples on her cheeks when she laughs, she should not be very dwarfish or very tall &c. Manu III. 9 and Āp. gr. (III. 13) say that the girl to be married must not bear names of the lunar mansions (such as Revatī, Ārdrā &c.), trees or rivers, she must not bear a mleccha name or that

1024. बुद्धिरूपशीललक्षणसंपन्नामरोगासुपयच्छेत । आश्व. ग्र. I. 5. 3; बन्धुशाल ...
..... सुपयच्छेत । आप. ग्र. III. 20.

1025. यस्यां मनश्चक्षुषोर्निबन्धस्तस्यासुद्धिर्नेतरद्वाद्रियेत्येके । आप. ध. III. 21.
This is quoted by the *śiṭa* on Yāj. I. 52. The Kāmasūtra III. 1. 14 has the same rule in the same words. The *भारद्वाजश्रुत* I. 11 quotes a verse to the same effect श्लोकं तु लाक्षणा उदाहरन्ति । यस्यां मनोऽसुरमते चक्षुश्च प्रतिपद्यते । तां विद्यासुखलक्ष्मीं किं ज्ञानेन करिष्यति ॥ This makes attractiveness more important in a woman even than knowledge. In the *Mālatīmādhava* (Act. II) Kāmandakī ascribes the words यस्यां मनश्चक्षुषोर्निबन्धस्तस्यासुद्धिरिति'.

1026. यां गृहीत्वा कृतिनमात्मानं मन्येत न च समानैर्निन्द्येत तस्यां प्रवृत्तिरिति
योदकमुखः । कामसूत्र III. 1. 3.

of a mountain, of a bird, of a snake or of a slave or a name that is terrific. Āp. gr. (III. 14) and Kāmasūtra III. 1. 13 mention that a girl should not be chosen, the penultimate letter of whose name is r or l (such as Gaurī, Śālī, Kamalū). Nārada¹⁰²⁷ (stri-puṃsayoga 36) says that defects of girls are as follows:—when they suffer from long-standing or disgusting diseases, when they are devoid of a limb or have already had connection with another man, when they are wicked or have their minds fixed on another; and Āp. gr. (III. 11-12) states other defects of girls viz. one should not choose a girl who is asleep or weeps or has left the house when persons come to see whether she can be chosen. Vide Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa 34. 76-77 for guṇas and defects of girls as 'brides'.

Bhār. gr. I. 11 says that there are four inducing reasons¹⁰²⁸ for marrying a particular girl viz. wealth, beauty, intelligence and family. If all four cannot be secured, wealth may be neglected (as the least important of all); then beauty may be neglected if there is intelligence and good family, but there is a difference of view as to the latter two, some preferring intelligence to family and others family to intelligence. Mānava gr. (I. 7. 6-7) adds a fifth inducement for marriage, viz. vidyā (learning) after beauty and before prajāñā. Vide also Vārāha gr. 10.

Some of the gṛhyasūtras propose a peculiar mystical method of selecting a bride. The Āśv. gr. (I. 5. 3) after stating that one should select a girl endowed with good characteristics (lakṣaṇas) proceeds 'lakṣaṇas are very difficult to discern' and therefore prescribes (I. 5. 5-6) that eight lumps of different kinds of earth should be taken respectively from a field that yields two crops a year, from a cow-stable, from a vedi (sacrificial altar, after sacrifice is performed), from a pool of water that does not dry up, from a gambling place, from a place where four roads meet, from a barren spot, and from a burial ground; then he should recite over the lumps the formula 'ṛta (right) has been born first in the beginning; truth is founded (or fixed) in ṛta; may this girl attain here that for which she is born; may what is true be visible; ' then he says to the girl

1027. दीर्घकुत्सितरोगार्ता व्यङ्ग्य संसृष्टमैथुना । दुष्टान्यगतभावा च कन्यादोषाः प्रकीर्तिताः ॥ नारद (श्रीपुंसयोग 36) .

1028. चत्वारि विवाहकारणानि वित्तं रूपं प्रज्ञा बान्धवमिति । तानि चेत्सर्वाणि न शक्य-
याहि तस्य दृश्येत्ततो रूपं प्रज्ञाय च तु बान्धवे च विवन्दते । बान्धवसुदृश्येदित्येक आहुरप्रज्ञेन
हि कः संवासः । भारद्वाजशुद्धा I. 11.

'take one of these'. According as she chooses the lump, it may respectively be deemed that she will have offspring rich in food (if she chooses the lump of the earth taken from the field of two crops a year &c.), or rich in cattle, or rich in spiritual lustre or rich in everything, or addicted to gambling, or wandering in different directions or poor, or that she will bring death to her husband (if she takes the lump of the earth from the burial ground). The Gobhila gr. II. 1. 4-9 speaks of these lumps and adds that a ninth lump may be formed by mixing up the earths of all eight varieties and that if she takes up any one of the four lumps of earth from an altar, furrow, a pool or a cow-stable or (according to some) the ninth lump, she may be selected. The Laugākṣi gr. 14. 4-7 contains the same rules as in Gobhila. Āp. gr.¹⁰²⁹ (III. 15-18) prescribes a somewhat different method. If both sides agree, the bridegroom (or his friends) should place in one lump of earth several kinds of seeds (such as rice, barley &c.); he should take (a lump having in it) the dust from an altar, a third having a clod from a ploughed field, a lump having cowdung inside and (a fifth having) a clod of earth from a cemetery and keeping them before the girl ask her to touch one of them (the five). If she touches any one of the first four, that is an indication of future prosperity (of the nature of the object touched), but the last (viz. clod of earth from cemetery) is objectionable. The Vārāha gr. 10 and Bhār. gr. I. 11 speak of only four lumps of earth viz. from a field, from an altar, from a cow-stable, and from a cemetery and say that one should not marry a girl who takes up the lump of cemetery earth. Mānava gr. (I. 7. 9-10) speaks of eight lumps but substitutes a lump of earth where dūrvā grows and a lump from under a tree filled with fruit for earth from a pool of water and one from a gambling place and adds that the eight lumps should be placed in a temple and if the girl takes up the lump from a cemetery or from a barren spot or from where four roads meet she should not be married. Many digests like the Gr. R. (pp. 13-22) contain long quotations which dilate upon the indications about the auspiciousness or otherwise of girls from their several physical features.

Gaut. IV. 1, Vas. 8. 1, Mānava gr. I. 7. 8, Yāj. I. 52 and several others say that the girl must be younger (yavīyasī)

1029. शक्तिविषये द्रव्याणि प्रतिच्छिन्नान्युपनिधाय ब्रूयादुपसृज्येति । नानावर्जितानि संसृष्टानि वेषाः पांसुर क्षेत्रालोष्टं शकुच्छमशानलोष्टमिति । पूर्वेषामुपस्पर्शने ययालिङ्गमुद्धिः उत्तमं परिचक्षते । आप. गृ. 3. 15-18.

than the bridegroom and the Kāmasūtra (III. 1. 2) recommends that she must be younger than the bridegroom by at least three years. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 52 explains 'yaviyasī' as meaning 'younger in age and smaller in stature' (than the bridegroom). What the age of marriage was will be discussed a little below.

Gaut. IV. 1, ¹⁰³⁰ Vas. 8. 1, Yāj. I. 52, Manu (III. 4 and 12) and others say that one should marry only a girl who is a virgin and of the same caste. How far widow-marriages and intercaste marriages were allowed would be discussed later on.

The Mānava gr. I. 7. 8, Manu III. 11 and Yāj. I. 53 require that the girl to be chosen must not be brotherless. This requirement which has been not in force for centuries has a long history behind it. In Rg. I. 124. 7 it is said ¹⁰³¹ 'as a brotherless maiden comes back towards her male relations (her father's family)...so the dawn reveals objects (or her beauty).' In the Atharvaveda I. 17. 1 we read 'like brotherless women let them sit still with their splendour gone'. Both these passages are quoted and explained in the Nirukta III. 4-5. In ancient times when a man had no son, he could make his daughter do for a son (i. e. she herself became putrikā) and stipulate with the person marrying her that the son born of her would be his (i. e. the girl's father's) son and would offer pīṇḍas as a son to his maternal grandfather. The result would be that the son of such a girl would not offer pīṇḍas to his father and would not continue the line of his father. Rg. III. 31. 1 (a very obscure and difficult verse) has been explained by the Nirukta (III. 4) as referring to the practice of declaring a daughter to be one's son ¹⁰³². Therefore, brotherless maidens were not chosen as brides and the Rg. speaks of spinsters growing old in their parental home (Rg. II. 17. 7). Vas. Dh. S. 17. 16 refers ¹⁰³³ to

1030. गृहस्थः सदृशीं भार्यां विन्देतानन्यपूर्वा यवीयसीम् । गौ. IV. 1; गृहस्थो विनीतत्रोधहर्षो अस्यष्टमेथुनामवरवयसीं सदृशीं भार्यां विन्देत । वसिष्ठ VIII. 1.

1031. अग्रातेव पुंस एति प्रतीची गर्तारुगिव सनये धनानाम् । जायेव पत्य उशती सुवासा उषा हस्रेव निरिणीते अन्तः । ऋ. I. 124. 7. The संस्कारप्रकाश p. 747 quotes this Vedic verse, Yāska's Nirukta thereon and Vas. also. अग्रातर इव जामय-स्तिष्ठन्तु हतवर्चसः । अथर्व I. 17. 1. The निरुक्त (III. 4) reads अग्रातर इव योषा-स्तिष्ठन्ति हतवर्चसः and explains अग्रातर इव योषास्तिष्ठन्ति संतानकर्मणे पिण्डदानाय हतवर्चसः .

1032. प्रशास्ति वोढा संतानकर्मणे दुहितुः पुत्रभावम् । निरुक्त III. 4.

1033. तृतीयः पुत्रिका । विज्ञायते अग्रातुका पुंसः पितृवभ्येति प्रतीचीनं गच्छति पुत्रवत् । तत्र श्लोकः । अग्रातुका प्रदास्यामि तुभ्यं कन्यामलङ्कृताम् । अस्यां यो जायते पुत्रः स मे पुत्रो भवेदिति । वसिष्ठ 17. 15-17. The sūtra विज्ञायते is an echo of the explanation of the Nirukta III. 5 and the verse quoted also occurs in the विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 15. 5.

Rg. I. 124. 7 and quotes a verse about a brotherless girl. Such a daughter at whose marriage the father made the stipulation stated above was called putrikā and according to Gaut. 28. 17 some ¹⁰³⁴ teachers went so far as to say that a daughter became a putrikā by the mental resolve of the father alone (without there being an express agreement with the bridegroom). It is therefore that Manu (3. 11) ordains that one should not marry a girl that has no brother, as there is the danger of her being a putrikā. The Nirukta (III. 5) quotes another ¹⁰³⁵ Vedic passage 'one should not marry a brotherless woman, for she becomes the son of him (her father)' and remarks that in this passage there is a direct prohibition against marrying a brotherless maiden (while in the passage of the Atharvaveda it is indirect, being involved in a simile) and it is also expressly said that she becomes the son of her father. In medieval times this prohibition against marrying a brotherless girl gradually was ignored and in modern times the pendulum has swung the other way, a brotherless girl being a coveted prize if her father be rich. In course of time popular feeling changed and no girl could remain unmarried if she wanted heavenly worlds. There is an interesting story in the Śalyaparva chap. 52 of the daughter of Kuṇigarga who, when told by Nārada that an unmarried woman could not secure heaven, married for one day Śṛṅgavat and then went to heaven.

There are further restrictions about choosing a girl for marriage. The rule was that a man should marry a girl of the same caste. So far there is what is called endogamy (i. e. rule requiring marriage within a certain large community). But within this large community there were certain groups which were prohibited for marriage to a person belonging to another group of the same caste or community (i. e. the principle of exogamy operated within the large community itself). The Hir. gr. I. 19. 2, Gobhila gr. III. 4. 4, Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 15 require that the bride to be chosen must not belong to the same gotra as that of the bridegroom. They are all silent about the sameness of pravara. Gaut. IV. 2., Vas. Dh. S. VIII. 1, Mānava

1034. अभिसंधिमात्रात्पुत्रिकेत्येषाम् । गौ. 28. 17.

1035. नाभ्रात्रीशुषयच्छेत तर्कं ह्यस्य तद्भवति इति अभ्रातृकाया उपयमनप्रतिषेधः प्रत्यक्षः पितृश्च पुत्रभावः । निरुक्त III. 5. Prof. Rājvade in his translation of the Nirukta in Marathi regards this passage (Nir. III. 5) as interpolated, but his reasons are quite unconvincing. विश्वरूप on या. I. 53 quotes नाभ्रा... भवति as a text of the Bhāṭṭavins.

gr. I. 7. 8, Vārāha gr. 9, Śaṅkha¹⁰³⁶ Dh. S. forbid marriage with a girl whose *pravara* (or *ārṣeya*) is the same as that of the bridegroom; but they say nothing about the prohibition against the sameness of gotra. It is somewhat remarkable that some of the gr̥hyasūtras like Āśv. and Pār. say not a word about sameness of *gotra* and *pravara*. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 9, Vaik. III. 2, Yāj. I. 53, Nārada (śrīpumsa, verse 7), Vedavyāsa II. 2 and many others prohibit sameness of gotra as well as of *pravara*. Gobhila gr. III. 4. 5, Manu III. 5, Vaik. III. 2 and Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 16 require that the bride must not be a *sapinda* or blood relation of the mother of the bridegroom; while Gaut. IV. 2, Vas. VIII. 2, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 10, Vārāha gr. 9, Śaṅkha Dh. (quoted above), Yāj. I. 53 and others restrict the prohibition against marrying a *sapinda* girl to seven degrees on the father's side and five degrees on the mother's side. There were others like the Vedavyāsa-smṛti which not only prohibited marriage with a girl who had the same gotra as the bridegroom's, but prohibited marriage with a girl whose mother's gotra was the same as the bridegroom's.

All these prohibitions against marrying a *sagotra*, *sapravara* or *sapinda* girl are extremely important, as the following considerations will show. It is a canon of the Pūrvamīmāṃsā that if there is a seen (dṛṣṭa) or easily perceptible reason for a rule stated in the sacred texts, it is only recommendatory and a breach of such a rule does not nullify the principal act. But if there is an unseen (adṛṣṭa) reason for a rule and there is a breach of such rule, the principal act itself is rendered invalid and nugatory thereby. The rule about not marrying a woman who is diseased or who has superfluous or deficient limbs has a seen reason viz. marriage with such a girl causes unhappiness (if she is diseased) or comment (if she has deficient limbs). Therefore, if a person marries such a girl the marriage is perfectly valid. But there is no seen or easily perceptible reason for the prohibition against marrying a *sagotra* or *sapravara* girl. Therefore, such rules go to the root of the matter and are obligatory and, if there is a breach of them, the marriage is no marriage, it is null and void. So even if a person goes through a ceremony of marriage with a girl who

1036. हरदत्त on आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 11-16 quotes शङ्ख 'द्वारानाहरेत्सदृशानसमानार्थेयानसंबन्धानासत्तमपञ्चमातिपुत्रातुबन्धुभ्यः' ॥. The words *ārṣeya*, *ārṣa* and *pravara* mean the same thing. Manu is silent about the prohibition against marrying a *sapravara* girl.

is a sagotra or sapravara or sapinda (within prohibited degrees) she does not in law become his wife at all. These principles are very lucidly set ¹⁰³⁷ forth by Medhātithi on Manu III. 11, by the Mit. on Yāj. I. 53, the Madanapārijāta and other works. Therefore, these questions of sagotra, sapravara and sapinda will be dealt with at some length later on.

The question of the age of marriage for men and women will now be considered. This is a very interesting and instructive study. The age of marriage for both sexes has varied considerably from age to age, from province to province and also from caste to caste even at the same time. ¹⁰³⁸ As regards men there is no special rule as to the age before which a man was obliged to marry. A man could remain celibate all his life, while at least in mediæval and modern times marriage has been absolutely necessary for every girl. A man was to marry after he had finished his Vedic studies; but the period of Vedic study was fluctuating (i. e. it could be 12, 24, 36, 48 years or as much time as was necessary to master one Veda or a portion of it). Usually twelve years were devoted to brahmacharya in ancient times and as upanayana ordinarily took place in the 8th year (for brāhmanas) a man would ordinarily be 20 years old or more at the time of marriage. It is therefore that Manu (IX. 94) remarks that a man of thirty may marry a girl of twelve years or a man of 24 who is in a hurry to become a householder may marry a girl of eight. Basing on this the Viṣṇu-purāṇa ¹⁰³⁹ (III. 10. 16) says that the ages of the bride and bridegroom should be in the ratio of 1 to 3. Āṅgīras says that the bride should be two, three, five or more years younger. In

1037. अस्मिन् प्रकरणे यत्र नास्ति दृष्टगतः प्रतिषेधः, यथा 'असपिण्डा च' इत्यत्र श्लोके, तदतिक्रमे विवाहस्वरूपानिर्बुद्धिरेव । अतः सगोत्रादिविवाहः कृतोप्यकृत एव । एवं सगोत्राया न भार्यात्वम् । यस्तु हीनक्रियादिप्रतिषेधः (मनु ३-७), तस्य दृष्टदर्शनमूल-त्वाच्चिर्वर्तते विवाहः, भवत्यसौ भार्या । मेधा० on मनु III. 11 ; सपिण्डा-समानगोत्रा-सप्रवरास्तु भार्यात्वमेव नोत्पद्यते । रेगिण्यादिषु तु भार्यात्व उत्पद्येपि दृष्टविरोध एव । मिता० on या. I. 53 ; vide also मदनपारिजात pp. 140-141, मुहस्यरत्नाकर p. 28. [Compare what St. Paul says 'the things that are seen are temporary, but the things that are not seen are eternal' 2nd Epistle to the Corinthians chap. IV. 18.]

1038. In Z. D. M. G. vol. 46 pp. 413-426 (Dr. Jolly) and vol. 47 pp. 143-154 (Dr. R. G. Bhandarkar's reply) there is an interesting discussion about the marriageable age of girls in ancient India.

1039. वर्षैरेकगुणं भार्यामुद्वहेत् त्रिगुणः स्वयम् । विष्णुपुराण III. 10. 16 ; वयोधिकां नोपयच्छेद् दीर्घां कन्यां स्वदेहतः । स्ववर्षाद् द्वित्रिपञ्चाद्विन्धूनां कन्यां समुद्वहेत् ॥ अङ्गिरस् quoted in स्मृतिसुकाफल (वर्णाश्रमधर्मे p. 125).

the Mahābhārata¹⁰⁴⁰ Gautama is prepared to give his daughter in marriage to Uttanka if he could be a youth of 16 years. In another place the Mahābhārata (Sabhā 64. 14 and Vanaparva 5. 15) uses the simile of a maiden not liking a husband of 60 years. That shows that girls were sometimes married to even old men of 60 in those days as rarely in modern times also. In the Mahābhārata (Anuśāsana 44. 14) the respective ages of the bridegroom and bride are recommended as 30 and 10 or 21 and 7; while the Udvāhatattva (p. 123) and S. Pr. p. 766 quote a verse from the Mahābhārata that a man of 30 should marry a girl of 16 (but from the metre and context it appears that 'śodaṣa-varṣām' as printed should be 'daśa-varṣām').

In the R̥gveda there are no clear statements about the exact age when girls were married. But there are indications that many girls were married at a sufficiently mature age (at least they were not married at the tender age of eight). We have already seen (p. 435) that brotherless girls often remained unmarried till old age. One of the benevolent deeds¹⁰⁴¹ of the Āśvins is that they bestowed a husband on Ghosā who was growing old in her father's house. Vide also Rg. I. 124. 7, II. 17. 7, and Atharvaveda I. 17. 1. In Rg. X. 27. 12 it is said 'when a bride is fine looking and well adorned, she by herself seeks her friend from among men'. That shows that girls were grown-up enough to select their husbands. Some of the verses in the marriage hymn (such as Rg. X. 85. 26-27, 46) indicate¹⁰⁴² that married girls could not have been child-wives, but must have been grown-up. On the other hand in Rg. I. 116. 1 it is said that the Nāsatyas (Āśvins) bestowed a wife on Vimada who was an *arbhaga* (of tender age).¹⁰⁴³ But all that is meant seems to be that Vimada was a mere boy as compared with his rival kings who had come as suitors. The two verses Rg. I. 126. 6-7 (which are rather too naive) indicate that girls were married before they had attained puberty. In Rg. I. 51. 13 Indra is said to have given to old Kakṣivat a wife named Vṛcayā who is styled '*arbhā*' (young). But that word is only used in contradistinction to the word '*mahate*' (grown old) applied to Kakṣivat

1040. युवा षोडशवर्षो हि यद्यय भविता भवान् । दद्यानि पत्नीं कन्यां च स्त्वां ते दुहितरं द्विज ॥ आश्वमेधिकपर्व 56. 22-23.

1041. घोषायै चित्तिवृषदे दुरोणे पतिं जूर्यन्त्या अश्विनावदत्तम् ॥ ऋ. I. 117. 7.

1042. सम्राज्ञी श्वशुरे भव सम्राज्ञी श्वश्र्वा भव । ननान्दरि सम्राज्ञी भव सम्राज्ञी अघि देवेषु ॥ ऋ. X. 85. 46.

1043. यावर्भगाय विमदाय जायां सेनाजुवा न्यूहतु रथेन ॥ ऋ. I. 116. 1.

and conveys no idea of her exact age.¹⁰⁴⁴ On the whole one may conclude that in the period of the Rgveda girls were probably married at any age (either before puberty or after puberty) and sometimes remained spinsters all their life. The other Samhitās and the Brāhmaṇas do not shed much light on the question of the age of marriage for girls. In the Chān. Up. Uṣasti Cākṛāyaṇa is described as dwelling in the Kuru country with his wife, who is said to have been 'āṭikī' which Śaṅkara explains as 'a mere undeveloped girl'.¹⁰⁴⁵

Coming to the ancient grhya and dharma sūtras, it will be seen from several considerations that girls were married just before the time of puberty or immediately after it. Among the several requirements of the bride to be chosen several grhya sūtras lay down that she must be a 'nagnikā'. Vide Hir. gr. I. 19. 2, Gobhila gr. III. 4. 6, Mānava gr. I. 7. 8, Vaik. VI. 12.¹⁰⁴⁶ The word *nagnikā* is variously explained by the commentators. Mātrdatta on Hir. gr. explains that *nagnikā* means 'one whose menstrual period is near' i. e. one who is fit for intercourse. Aṣṭāvakra, the commentator of the Mānava gr., explains *nagnikā* as 'one who has not yet experienced the impulses and emotions of youth' or 'one who looks pretty even without clothes' (taking the word along with 'śreṣṭhām' that follows). The Grhyāsamgraha¹⁰⁴⁷ (which is much later than the Gobhila gr.) explains 'nagnikā' as one who has not yet reached puberty. These varying explanations of the word 'nagnikā' are due to the fact that when some smṛtis and commentators wrote child marriages were not in vogue, while they were in vogue when and where others flourished. Vas. Dh. S. 17. 70 says 'the father

1044. अद्वा अर्धं महते वचस्यवे कक्षीवते वृचयामिन्द्र सुन्वते । ऋ. I. 51. 13.

1045. मन्वीहतेषु कुरुषुषादिक्या सह जाययोषसिर्ह वाकायण इष्यग्रामे प्रज्ञाणक उवास । छान्दोग्य I. 10. 1. शंकर explains 'आदिक्या अनुपजातपयोधरादिस्त्री-व्यञ्जनया'.

1046. ताभ्यामनुज्ञातो भार्यानुपपद्यते सजातां नशिकां ब्रह्मचारिणीमसगोत्राम् । हिरण्य. गृ. I. 19. 2; 'नशिकामासजातवाम् । ...तस्माद्विद्वेषणार्हा नशिका मैथुनाहर्हयर्थः' मातृवृत्त; 'बन्धुमतीं कन्यामस्मृष्टमैथुनानुपपद्यते ... यवीयसीं नशिकां श्रेष्ठाम् ।' मानवगृह्य I. 7. 8. Dr. Bhandarkar shows that in many Mss. of the Hir. gr. and as handed down by oral tradition among the *vaidikas* of the Hir. śakha the reading is सजातानशिकां (i. e. the girl should be of the same caste and not a *nagnikā*). Vide ZDMG vol. 47. pp. 143-46.

1047. नशिकां तु वदेत्कन्यां यावन्नर्तुमती भवेत् । कर्तुमती त्वनशिका तां प्रपद्येत् नशिकाम् ॥ अयासा रजसो गौरी माते रजसि रोहिणी । अत्यजिता भवेत्कन्या कुचहीना च नशिका । गृह्यसंग्रह quoted by com. on गोभिलगृह्य III. 4. 6.

should give away his daughter while she is still *nagnikā* through fear of her attaining puberty (while unmarried).' This shows that according to Vas. *nagnikā* must have been a girl of tender years or one that had not attained puberty.

There is another very important indication. Most of the *gr̥hyasūtras* prescribe that the married couple should be celibate for at least three nights after marriage (if not for a longer period). For example, the *Pār. gr̥. (I. 8)* says¹⁰⁴⁸ ' the married pair should (after marriage) not partake of *kṣāra* and *lavāṇa* for three nights, should sleep on the ground (and not on a cot, for the same period) and should not have intercourse for a year, twelve nights, six nights, three nights in the last resort '. Vide for a similar rule *Āśv. gr̥. I. 8, 10, Āp. gr̥. 8. 8-9, Śān. gr̥. I. 17. 5, Mānava gr̥. I. 14. 14, Kāthaka gr̥. 30. 1, Khādīra gr̥. I. 4. 9* and others. Such an injunction against intercourse for three nights after marriage would have been uncalled for and extremely inappropriate if girls had been usually married when they were only eight to ten years old. Such injunctions by so many authors presuppose that girls must have generally been very near puberty or past puberty at the time of marriage. Haradatta who belongs to about the 12th century A. D. expressly says¹⁰⁴⁹ that (in his days) in certain countries intercourse was commenced immediately after marriage and that such a usage being opposed to *Āśv. gr̥. I. 8. 10* should not be followed (but continence should be observed at least for three days after marriage). This shows that so late as 1200 A. D. in several countries the marriageable age of girls must have been at least about 14.

In most of the *gr̥hyasūtras* there is a rite called ' *caturthi-karma* ' (rite on 4th day after marriage). Vide *Gobhila II. 5, Śān. gr̥. I. 18-19, Khādīra gr̥. I. 4. 12-16, Pār. gr̥. I. 11, Āp. gr̥. 8. 10-11, Hir. gr̥. I. 23-24 &c.* This rite has been described above (pp. 203-204) and corresponds to the *garbhādhāna* of later writers (e. g. *Yāj. I. 11*). As cohabitation is expressly mentioned in connection with this rite performed on the fourth day after

1048. त्रिरात्रमक्षारालवणाग्निौ स्यातामधः शयीयातां संवत्सरं न मिथुनसुपेयातां द्वादशरात्रं...त्रिरात्रमन्ततः । पारस्करशृङ्खल I. 8.

1049. केषुचिद्देशेषु सद्यः समावेशनं दृष्टं वक्ष्यमाणेन त्रिरात्रं द्वादशरात्रमिति ब्रह्मचर्येण बाध्यते । हरदत्त on आश्व. सू. I. 7. 2, on which नारायण also says ' वैदेहेषु सद्य एव स्यवायो दृष्टः । गृह्ये तु ब्रह्मचारिणो त्रिरात्रमिति ब्रह्मचर्यं विहितं तत्र शृङ्खलामेव कुर्यान्न देशधर्ममिति सिद्धम् । '.

marriage it follows that girls must have generally been quite grown-up at the time of marriage.

In some of the gṛhyasūtras and smṛtis a slight prāyaścitta (purificatory ceremony) is prescribed if the bride has menstruation during the progress of the marriage ceremonies. Vide Baud. gr. IV. 1. 10, Kauśika sūtra 79. 16, Vaik. VI. 13, Atri (ed. by Jiv. part I. p. 11).

Gaut.¹⁰⁵⁰ (18. 20-23) says 'a girl should be given in marriage before she attains the age of puberty. He who neglects it commits sin. Some declare that she should be given in marriage before she begins to wear clothes. A marriageable girl (who is not given in marriage by her father &c.) should allow three monthly periods to pass and afterwards unite herself to a blameless man of her own will and give up the ornaments received from her father (or her family)'. This passage establishes that even before Gautama (i. e. 500 or 600 B. C.) there were people who advocated marriages of infant girls that did not care to put on clothes (i. e. who had no sense of shame if they went about without clothes), that Gautama disapproved of this view, that he only prescribed that the marriage of girls should take place before puberty and he was not horrified if girls got themselves married sometime after puberty. But it is clear that no blame attached to the girl married after puberty or to the husband; the idea, however, had arisen even then that the father or guardian incurred blame or sin by not getting a girl married before puberty. Manu (IX. 89-90) goes so far as to say 'A maiden may rather stay in her father's house even till her death, though she may have attained puberty; but the father should never give her to one who is devoid of good qualities. A maiden after attaining puberty may wait for three years (to see if she is given away by her father or brother &c.) but after this period she should seek a husband who is similar to her.' Anuśāsanaparva 44. 16 is to the same effect. Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 14 and Vas. V. Dh. S. 17. 67-68 give the same rule as in Manu IX. 90. But both add (Vas. 17. 70-71 and Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 12) that the father or guardian incurs the sin of destroying an embryo at each appearance of menses as long as the girl is

1050. व्रीह्यतूनतीत्य स्वयं शुज्येतानिन्दितोत्सृज्य पित्र्यानलंकारान् । प्रदानं प्रागृतोः ।
अपयच्छन् दोषी । प्रागवाससः प्रतिपत्तेरित्येके । गौ. 18. 20-23.

unmarried. Yāj. I. 64 and Nārada (śrīpumsa, verses 25-27) state the same rule.

On account of this change in popular beliefs and sentiments it came to be recommended that a girl must be married early and may be given even to one ¹⁰⁵¹ who is devoid of qualities (in spite of Manu IX 89). Vide Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 12 and 15.

So we see that from about 600 B. C. to about the beginning of the Christian Era it did not matter at all if a girl was married a few months or few years after puberty. But by about 200 A. D. (when the Yāj. smṛti was composed) popular feeling had become insistent on pre-puberty marriages. The reasons for this change are not quite clear. But it is possible to hold that it was due to the following circumstances. Buddhism had spread far and wide during these centuries with its encouragement of the institution of monks and nuns. There was laxity of morals among nuns. A further reason may be adduced viz. that girls had generally ceased to study anything, though some of them certainly did study in the times of Pāṇini and Patañjali, and so society did not like girls to remain doing nothing. From the times of the R̥gveda (X. 85. 40-41) there was a mystical belief that Soma, Gandharva and Agni were the divine guardians of a girl and the Gr̥hyāsamgraha (quoted in the com. on Gobhila gr̥. III. 4. 6) says that Soma enjoys a girl first, then Gandharva enjoys her when her breasts develop and fire when she menstruates. Therefore, a feeling arose that a girl must be married even before she develops any distinct signs of femininity. Samvarta ¹⁰⁵² (verses 64 and 67) gives expression to this idea. Further, since marriage came to be looked upon as the upanayana in the case of women, naturally the age for upanayana (3th year) came to be looked upon as the proper age for marriage. Vide Samskārakaustubha quoted below. It came to be believed that there was no hope of heaven for a woman who died unmarried.

1051. कृद्याहुणवते कन्यां नम्रिकां ब्रह्मचारिणीम् । अपि वा शुणहीनाय नोपसन्ध्याद्-जस्वलम् ॥ अविद्यमाने सद्गृहे शुणहीनमपि श्रेयेत् ॥ बौ. ध. सू. IV. 1. 12 and 15.

1052. रोमकाले तु संप्राप्ते सोमो शुद्धक्तेय कन्यकाम् । रजो दृष्ट्वा तु गन्धर्वाः कुचौ दृष्ट्वा तु पावकः । ...तस्माद् विवाहयेत्कन्यां यावन्नर्तुमती भवेत् । विवाहो ह्यष्टवर्षायाः कन्यायास्तु प्रशस्यते ॥ संवर्त verses 64 and 67, quoted by Sm. C. I. p. 79 and Gr. R. p. 46. श्रीगामुपनयनस्थानापक्षो विवाह इति तदुचितत्वस्थायां विवाहस्योचितत्वात् । संस्कारकौस्तुभ p. 699; विवाहं चोपनयनं श्रीगामाह पितामहः । तस्माद्गर्भोष्ठमः श्रेष्ठो जन्मतो वाह-वत्सरः ॥ यम quoted in स्मृतिषु. (वर्णाश्रमधर्म) p. 136.

In the Śālyaparva¹⁰⁵³ chap. 52 we have the story of a girl, daughter of Kuṇi Garga, who practised severe penance till she reached old age and yet was told by Nārada that if she died unmarried she would not go to heaven. The woman induced Śṛṅgavat of the Gālava family for a day previous to her death to marry her by the promise of giving him half of her merit (punya). The Vaik.¹⁰⁵⁴ (V. 9), while describing the ceremony of funeral rites in cases of distress, mentions the curious practice of finding out a male of the same caste for a girl, who dies unmarried though of the age of puberty, with whom a sort of marriage is gone through and the girl is then cremated. Whatever the reasons may be, this tendency to bring down the age of marriage for girls was accentuated in the first five or six centuries of the Christian era. The Laugākṣi¹⁰⁵⁵ gr. (19. 2) says 'brahmacarya for girls lasts till the 10th or 12th year'. The Vaik. (VI. 12) says that a brāhmaṇa should marry a brāhmaṇa girl who is a *nagnikā* or *gaurī* and defines *nagnikā* as a girl over eight years but less than ten and *gaurī* as one who is between ten and twelve and has not had menstruation. Aparārka (p. 85) quotes the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa to the effect that *nagnikā* is one who is ten years old. Vide Sm. C. quoting Saṃgraha. Parāśara, Yāj. and Saṃvarta go even beyond this. Parāśara¹⁰⁵⁶ (VII. 6-9) says 'a girl of eight is called *gaurī*, but one who is nine years old is a *rohinī*; one who is ten years old is a *kanyā*; beyond this (i. e. after 10 years) she is a *rajasvalā*. If a person does not give away a maiden when she has reached her 12th year, his piṭṛs have to drink every month her menstrual discharge. The parents and also the eldest brother go to hell on seeing (an unmarried) girl reaching the state of a *rajasvalā*'. Parāśara adds that the brāhmaṇa who marries such a girl should not be spoken to or admitted to dinner in the same row (as other

1053. असंस्कृतायाः कन्यायाः कुतो लोकास्तवानवे । शल्यपर्व 52. 12.

1054. तथैव कन्यां च मृतां प्राप्तयौवनां तुल्येन पुंसां प्राप्तमृदवत्तां दहेत् । वैखानस-स्मार्तसूत्र V. 9.

1055. दशवार्षिकं ब्रह्मचर्यं कुमारीणां द्वादशवार्षिकं वा । लौगाक्षिगृह्य 19. 2. ब्राह्मणो ब्राह्मणीं नशिकां गौरीं वा कन्यां वरयेत् । अष्टवर्षाद्वा दशमाश्रिका । रजस्य-प्राप्ते दशवर्षाद्वा द्वादशाद् गौरीत्यामनन्ति । वैखानस VI. 12; संग्रहकारोपि । यावच्चैलं न गृह्णाति यावच्छीडति पांशुभिः । यावद् दोषं न जानाति तावद् भवति नशिका ॥ स्मृतिच I.p.80.

1056. माता चैव पिता चैव ज्येष्ठो भ्राता तथैव च । त्रयस्ते नरकं यान्ति दृष्ट्वा कन्यां रजस्वलाम् ॥ यस्तां सद्यद्दहेत्कन्यां ब्राह्मणोऽज्ञानमोहितः । असंभान्यो ह्यपाह्नकः स विप्रो दृषलीपतिः ॥ पराशर VII. 8-9. The स्मृतिच. (I. pp. 73 and 81) quotes पराशर VII. 6-9 as from यम.

brāhmaṇas) and that he becomes the husband of a vṛṣālī. On the other hand the Vāyupurāṇa (83. 44) extols the marriage of a gaurī by remarking that her son purifies 21 ancestors on his father's side and 6 male ancestors on his mother's side. Samvarta (verse 65-66) has the same two verses as Parāśara (VII. 6 and 8) and winds up (verse 67) by saying that the marriage of a girl of eight is highly commended. The same four verses (Parāśara VII. 6-9) occur in Bṛhad-Yama (Ānan. ed.) chap. 3. 19-22, but the order is different. Aṅgiras (vv. 126-128, Ānan. ed.) has the same verses. Kaśyapa as quoted in the Gr. R. (p. 46) says that a girl is called gaurī when she is seven, a kanyakā when she is ten and kumārī when she is twelve. It will be noticed that the smṛtis of Vaikhānasa and Kaśyapa differed from Parāśara as to the definition of gaurī. Further the three smṛtis make marriage of a girl after puberty an extremely sinful act and condemn not only the parents but also the husband, while Baud. prescribed only a slight prāyaścitta for the father alone even if there was menstruation during the marriage rites. Marici¹⁰⁵⁷ (quoted in Par. M. I. 2. p. 177) said that choosing a bride who was five years old was best. Even Manu (9. 88) recommended an early marriage if a very desirable bridegroom was available. Rāma and Sītā are said to have been respectively 13 and 6 at the time of marriage (Aranyakāṇḍa 47. 10-11). But this passage appears to be an interpolation. In the Bālakāṇḍa¹⁰⁵⁸ it is expressly stated that Sītā and her sisters enjoyed in private dalliance with their respective husbands immediately after marriage. If this is true then Sītā could not have been only 6 at the time of marriage.

The rule that brāhmaṇa girls were to be married between 8 to 10 years became general from about the 6th or 7th century and continued down to modern times. During the last two or three decades the marriageable age of girls owing to several causes, particularly the ravages of plague and the economic condition of the middle classes, has risen very high and marriages of girls even of poor brāhmaṇas hardly ever take place before 16 and have to be postponed to the age of 20 and beyond. Besides the Child Marriage Restraint Act (XIX of 1929, as amended

1057. जन्मतो गर्भाधानाद्वा पञ्चमाब्दात्परं शुभम् । कुमारीवरणं दानं मेखलाबन्धनं तथा ॥ मरीचि quoted in परा. मा. I. part 2 p. 177.; सप्तवर्षा भवेद्गौरी दशवर्षा तु नग्निका । भविष्यपुराण quoted by सं. प्र. p. 768.

1058. अभिवाद्याभिवाद्यांश्च सर्वा राजसुतास्तदा । रेसिरे सुदिताः सर्वा भर्तृभिः सहिता रहः ॥ बालकाण्ड 77. 16-17 (in 3 vol. with गोविन्दराज's com.).

by Act 19 of 1938) has fixed the minimum age limit for girls at 14 and persons getting their daughters married before the completion of 14 years are liable to be punished in a criminal court under the Act. There is no reason to laugh at ancient Indian writers for the low age of marriage they advocated. Child marriages were common in all countries of Europe. Even in England the age limits for boys and girls were recognised by the law only at 14 and 12 respectively until 1929, when the lowest marriageable age for both was fixed at 16 (19 and 20 Geo. V. Chap. 36). Besides it must be remembered that when marriages of girls of tender years took place they were purely a sacrament. There was no question of consummation which took place only after puberty. Sages condemned intercourse even with one's wife before she attained puberty.¹⁰⁵⁹ Winternitz in 'Die Frau.' p. 135 refers to a work of F. J. Furnivall on 'Child Marriages, Divorces &c' between 1560-66 A. D. in England from which it is clear that marriages of children of 9 or 10 (and rarely of even 2 or 3 years) took place in England only about 300 years ago.

These rules about the proper age for the marriage of girls affected only brāhmaṇas. Sanskrit poets and dramatists always depict that the heroines in their works are grown-up at the time of marriage and even Bhavabhūti imagines that Mālātī, the heroine of his romantic drama of Mālātīmādhava, was so grown-up that it was practically a case of love at first sight. Vaik. (VI. 12) requires a brāhmaṇa bride to be a *nagnikā* or *gaurī*, but does not prescribe the same qualification for a kṣatriya or vaiśya bride. In the Harṣacarita princess Rājyaśrī is described as quite grown-up at the time of her marriage which was consummated on the very day of marriage (vide the last para. of the 4th Uchchvāsa). The Samskāra-prakāśa¹⁰⁶⁰ expressly says that there is no prohibition against marrying a girl who has passed the age of puberty for kṣatriyas and others. Even in Pauranic times grown-up unmarried girls must not have been unheard of. The Gr. R. p. 83 quotes a passage from the Brahmapurāṇa where the injunction to observe complete celi-

1059. प्रायजोर्दशनात्पत्नीं नेयाद्भूत्वा पतत्यथः । व्यर्थीकारेण शुक्रस्य ब्रह्महत्यामवाम-
यादिति तत्रैवाश्वलायनोक्तेः । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 234.

1060. अत्रिकश्यपौ । यस्तु तां वरयेत्कन्यां ब्राह्मणो ज्ञानदुर्बलः । अश्राद्धेयमपाङ्कतेयं
तं विद्याद्ब्रह्मलीपतिम् ॥ इति । अत्र ब्राह्मणपदोपादानाद्ब्राह्मणस्यैवार्थं रजस्वलापरिणयन-
निषेधो न क्षत्रियादीनाम् । कुन्त्यादिषु तथा दर्शनात् । संस्कारप्रकाश p. 771.

bacy for one year, 12 days, 6 days or 3 days is construed as respectively referring to girls whose ages were 8, 12, 16 or 20 at the time of marriage.¹⁰⁶¹

Another important question is inter-caste marriages. It has already been shown (pp. 50-58) how anuloma marriages were allowed, while pratiloma unions were condemned and how it was supposed that numerous sub-castes arose from such mixed marriages.

It is the contention of several eminent scholars (e. g. Senart in his 'Caste in India' translated by Ross p. 124) that caste as implied in modern usage and in its strict sense did not exist in the times of the R̥gveda and the other Vedic Samhitās. We have seen, however, that the four varṇas had been recognised in the times of the Samhitās and that ideas of superiority and inferiority due to being of a particular varṇa had become quite prevalent. But the practices as to marrying outside one's varṇa and taking food had not become as rigid and cast-iron as they became in medieval times. A few clear examples of inter-caste marriages may be cited from the Vedic Literature. The Śat. Br. (IV. 1. 5, S. B. E. vol. 26, pp. 272-275) narrates the story of the old and decrepit sage Cyavana who was a Bhārgava (descendant of Bhṛgu) or Āṅgīrasa to Sukanyā, the daughter of king Śaryāta, a descendant of Manu. The Śat. Br. (XIII. 2. 9. 8, ¹⁰⁶² S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 326) quotes a half verse from the Vāj. S. (26. 30) and then remarks 'therefore he does not anoint (as king) the son of the vaiśya woman.' This suggests that a king might marry a vaiśya girl, but her son would not have the Vedic coronation ceremony performed on him. Verses 17-19 of the R̥gveda V. 61 are interpreted by the Bṛhad-devatā (V. 50) as referring to the marriage of the brāhmaṇa sage Śyāvāśva to the daughter of king Rathavīti Dārbhya. The story of Kavaṣa Ailūsa who was styled 'dāsyāḥ putra' (either meaning 'the son of a dāsī or used as a term of abuse) by the sages has been mentioned above (at p. 36).

1061. कृते विवाहे वर्षे तु वस्तस्य ब्रह्मचारिणा । यद्वाष्टवर्षा कन्या स्यात् तथा तन्निशुणः पुमान् ॥ अथवा द्वादशाहानि त्रिंशद्वर्षेण सर्वदा । यदि द्वादशवर्षा स्यात्कन्या रूपशुणान्विता । द्वात्रिंशद्वर्षेण तु यदि षोडशवर्षिकी । लब्धा तदा च षड्वारं वस्तस्य संयतेन तु ॥ विंशत्यब्दा यदा कन्या वस्तस्य तत्र वै त्रयहम् । अत ऊर्ध्वमहोरात्रं वस्तस्यमिति संमतम् ॥ ब्रह्मपुराण quoted in गृह. र. p. 83.

1062. शूद्रा यद्व्यजारा न पोषाय धनायतीति तस्माद्वैशीष्टुत्रं नाभिषिञ्चति । शतपथ XIII. 2. 9. 8. This verse has been quoted above in note 83.

Turning to the dharma and grhya sūtras, the matter stands thus. Some of the grhya sūtras (like Āśv., Āp.) do not expressly say anything about the varṇa of the bride. The Āp. Dh. S.¹⁰⁶³ (II. 6. 13. 1 and 3) requires that one should marry a girl of the same varṇa, who was not given before to another and marriage with whom is in accordance with śāstra and says that by contravening these rules sin is incurred. So he condemns mixed marriages. The Mānava gr. I. 7. 8 and Gaut. IV. 1 require that one should marry a girl of the same varṇa and are silent about marriages with a bride of another varṇa. But Gautama knew of such marriages and enumerates the names of several sub-castes due to mixed marriages (IV. 14-17) and he includes among those who are unfit to be invited at a śrāddha dinner a brāhmaṇa who is the husband of a woman of the śūdra caste (15. 18). Manu (III. 12), Śaṅkha and Nārada¹⁰⁶⁴ (śrīpūrṇa, v. 4) say that the best course is to marry a girl of one's own caste. This is said to be *pūrvā kalpa* (the foremost or the best procedure). Many also speak of a less advisable course (*anukalpa*, as it is called) viz. that a brāhmaṇa may take as wife a woman of any caste, a kṣatriya may marry a woman of his own caste or a vaiśya or a śūdra woman, a vaiśya may marry a vaiśya or śūdra woman and a śūdra only a śūdra woman. This is stated by Baud. Dh. S. I. 8. 2, Śaṅkha, Manu III. 13, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 1-4. Pār. gr. I. 4 and Vas. Dh. S.¹⁰⁶⁵ I. 25 inform us that some teachers allowed a dvija to marry a śūdra woman but without Vedic mantras. But Vasiṣṭha himself condemns it severely by saying 'one should not do so (i. e. marry a śūdra girl), for by doing so the degradation of the family is certain and loss of heaven after death'. Though the Viṣṇu Dh. S. and Manusmṛti state that a dvijāti may marry a śūdra girl, that is not their own view, but they simply voice practices and sentiments prevalent in their time, since both denounce the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a śūdra girl in the most un-measured terms. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 26. 5-6 (S. B. E. vol. 7 p. 112) says that the union of a dvijāti with a śūdra woman can never produce religious

1063. सवर्णापूर्वशास्त्रविहितायां यथर्तुं गच्छतः पुत्रास्तेषां कर्मभिः संबन्धः । पूर्ववत्याम-
संस्कृतायां वर्णान्तरे च मैथुने दोषः । आप. ध. II. 6. 13. 1 and 3.

1064. ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियविशां शूद्राणां च परिग्रहे । सजातिः श्रेयसी भार्या सजातिश्च
पतिः स्त्रियाः ॥ ब्राह्मणस्याल्लोभ्येन स्त्रियोऽन्यास्त्वित् एव तु । नारद (स्त्रीपुंस verses 4-5).

1065. तिस्रो ब्राह्मणस्य भार्या वर्णादुपवर्णेन द्वे राजन्यस्य एकैका वैश्यशूद्रयोः । शूद्रा-
सप्तके सन्त्रवर्जं तद्वत् । तथा न कुर्यात् । अतो हि ध्रुवः कुलापकर्षः प्रेत्य चासवर्गः । वसिष्ठ
I. 24-27.

merit; it is from carnal desire alone that he marries her being blinded by lust; and that dvijāti men who thus marry śūdra women quickly degrade their families and progeny to the status of śūdras'. The ancient editor of the Manusmṛti did not tolerate such marriages (though he gave expression to the common trend of view in III. 12-13) and condemns a dvijāti's marriage with a śūdra woman in the strongest language (III. 15-19, Manu III. 15 being the same as Viṣṇu Dh. S. 26. 5) 'a brāhmaṇa by having intercourse with a śūdra woman goes to hell and by procreating a son on her he loses his status as a brāhmaṇa'. Yāj. I. 57 allowed a brāhmaṇa or kṣatriya to marry a girl of his own varṇa or of the varṇas next in order, but laid it down as his emphatic opinion that 'a dvijāti should not marry a śūdra girl'. It appears however that prevailing public opinion and practice was too much for both Manu and Yāj.; for, both declare (Yāj. II. 125 and Manu IX. 152-153) that when a brāhmaṇa has sons from wives of the four varṇas, the son of a brāhmaṇa wife takes four shares (out of 10 in which his wealth is to be divided), the son of a kṣatriya wife takes three, of a vaiśya wife two and of a śūdra wife one. Yāj. (I. 91-92) recognises the marriage of a brāhmaṇa with a śūdra and says that the son of such a union is a pāraśava'. Manu III. 44 also recognises the marriage of a śūdra girl with one of a higher class by saying that she holds the hem of the garment of a bridegroom of a higher class.

This shows that the ancient smṛtis ungrudgingly recognised marriages between a brāhmaṇa and a kṣatriya or a vaiśya girl. But opinion was not unanimous about the marriage of a dvijāti with a śūdra woman. Such marriages took place, but were looked upon with disfavour and often condemned with severity. *Anuloma* marriages were frequent enough till the 9th or 10th century A. D., but became rare later and for the last several hundred years they hardly ever took place or they were not at all recognized as valid by the communities concerned. The epigraphic records furnish well authenticated instances of inter-caste marriages. The Vākātakas were brāhmaṇas (their gotra being Viṣṇuvṛddha). The Poona plates of Prabhāvatiguptā (E. I. vol. 15 p. 39) establish that she was a daughter of Candragupta II. (first quarter of 5th century A. D.) of the Imperial Gupta dynasty and became the chief queen of the king Rudrasena II of the Vākātika line. The Talagundā pillar inscription of the Kadamba king Kakusthavarman (E. I. vol. 8 p. 24) recites that

the founder of the Kadamba family was Mayūraśarman, a brāhmaṇa, who being exasperated with the Pallavas of Kāñci took up the sword. His descendants have names ending in varman (as kṣatriyas should have, according to Manu II. 32). The inscription mentions that Kakusthavarman (who was 4th in descent from Mayūraśarman) got his daughters married to Gupta and other kings. In the Ghaṭotkaca Inscription of Yaśodharman and Viṣṇuvardhana (A. S. W. I. vol. 4, p. 140) we are told that Soma, a brāhmaṇa and ancestor of Hastibhoja, minister of the Vākātaka king Devasena, gave his heart to wives born in brāhmaṇa and kṣatriya families. The Tipperah copper-plate grant of a chieftain called Lokanātha (E. I. vol. 15, p. 301 ff) dated in the 44th year (probably of the Harṣa era i. e. about 650 A. D.) says that Lokanātha's ancestors belonged to the Bharadvāja gotra (p. 306) and that the maternal grand-father of Lokanātha was Keśava who is said to have been a pāraśava (p. 307), while Keśava's father Vira was a brāhmaṇa (dvijasattama). Virūpādevī, a daughter of the famous Vijayanagara king Bukka I (1268-1298 A. D.), was married to a brāhmaṇa named Brahma or Bomanna Wodeya, who was the Governor of the Ārāga province (E. I. vol. 15, p. 12). Vide also E. I. vol. 18, p. 87 (dated 894 of the Vikrama era) for Pratihāra kings being descended from a brāhmaṇa Haricandra and the latter's kṣatriya wife; the Āṭpur Inscription of Śaktikumāra dated in samvat 1034 (977 A. D.) which states that the founder of the Guhila dynasty was a brāhmaṇa Guhadatta, whose descendant Bhartṛpaṭṭa married a Rāṣṭrakūṭa princess.

Classical Sanskrit Literature also yields certain well-known instances of inter-caste marriages. The Mālavikāgnimitra of Kālidāsa shows that Agnimitra, a son of Senāpati Puṣyamitra of the Śuṅga dynasty and a brāhmaṇa, married Mālavikā who was a kṣatriya princess. In the Harṣacarita of Bāṇa (Ucchvāsa I towards end) we are told by Bāṇa himself that among the friends and companions of his wanderings there were his two pāraśava brothers Candrasena and Mātṛgeṇa (i. e. step-brothers from a śūdra wife of his father). Rājaśekhara, teacher of king Mahendrapāla of Kanoj, says in his Karpūramañjarī (I. 11) that his accomplished wife Avantisundarī was descended from the Cāhuāṇa (modern Chavan) family (i. e. from a kṣatriya family).

It is extremely difficult to say when exactly inter-caste marriages even between dvijātis came to be prohibited by the

smṛtis and writers of digests. Viśvarūpa¹⁰⁶⁶ on Yāj. III. 283 (not later than first half of 9th century) clearly suggests that in his day a brāhmaṇa could marry a kṣatriya girl. Medhātithi on Manu III. 14 suggests that about 900 A. D. at the latest marriages of brāhmaṇas with kṣatriya and vaiśya girls took place rarely in his day, but not with śūdra women; and the Mit. on Yāj. does not at all say that though marriages among dvijātis (anuloma ones) were allowed by Manu and Yāj. they had entirely ceased to be regarded as valid by its time. Many of the medieval digests and writers like the Sm. C. and Hemādri quote verses stated to be from the Āditya-purāṇa or Brahma-purāṇa on matters forbidden in the Kali age (and so called Kali-varjya) among which inter-caste marriages are included.

The Āpastamba¹⁰⁶⁷ smṛti (in verse ed. by Jivānanda I, p. 549, chap. IX) says that by marrying a girl of another caste a man incurred the sin of mahāpātaka and had to undergo the penance of 24 kṛcchras. The Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa (113. 34-36) narrates the story of king Nābhāga who married a vaiśya girl by the rākṣasa form of marriage and who consequently incurred sin.

The state of the law as to inter-caste marriages in British Indian courts may be briefly indicated here. By the Special Marriage Act (III of 1872 as amended by Act XXX of 1923) both anuloma and pratiloma marriages are validated if they are registered and solemnized according to the procedure prescribed by the Act. But if a marriage is not so solemnized under that Act, but under the general rules of Hindu Law, then all pratiloma marriages are invalid throughout British India.

1066. भ्रातृजाया च ब्राह्मणस्यापि क्षत्रिया भवत्येव । विश्वरूप on या. III. 283 ; 'ननु च द्विजातीनां शूद्राद्युक्तौ नास्त्येव तद्विवाहप्रतिषेधात् । सत्यम् । स्मृत्यर्थभ्रान्त्या तु प्रवृत्तावयं विभागधर्म इत्यभिप्रायः ।' विश्वरूप on या. II. 129 ; सवर्णानियमेनासवर्णानिवृत्तेरर्थतः कृतायाः पुनः शूद्रानिवृत्तिरसवर्णानिवृत्तेरनित्यत्वं ज्ञापयति । अनित्यत्वे चापदि सवर्णाया अलाभे भवति चायमवगमः शूद्रा न वोढव्या इतरे तु वोढव्ये । मेधातिथि on मनु III. 14.

1067. The उद्वाहत्तव of रघुनन्दन (ed. by Jivānanda vol. II, p. 112) quotes the verse द्विजानामसवर्णास्तु कन्यासुपयमस्तथा from the बृहन्नारदीय and कन्यानामसवर्णानां विवाहश्च द्विजातिभिः from the आदित्यपुराण. The latter is quoted in the परा. मा. (vol. 1. part 1 p. 134) and in the Caturvarga-cintāmaṇi (vol. III. part 2 p. 667). The first quotation (द्विजाना &c) occurs in the नारदीयमहापुराण, पूर्वभाग, chap. 24. 13.

But *anuloma* ¹⁰⁶⁸ marriages have been recognised as valid by some High Courts in India; the Allahabad High Court, however, regards all *anuloma* marriages even as invalid.

The next restriction that the girl to be married must not be a *sapinda* of the bride-groom has now to be considered. *Sapinda* relationship is of special importance in three matters, viz. marriage, inheritance and *āśauca* ¹⁰⁶⁹ (impurity on birth and death). The prohibition against marriage with a *sapinda* girl applies to all *varṇas* including the *sūdra* ¹⁰⁷⁰. There are two schools about the meaning of *sapinda*, one represented by the *Mitākṣarā* and the other by *Jimūtavāhana* (author of the *Dāyabhāga*). Both are agreed that a *sapinda* girl cannot be married, but they differ as to the meaning of the word. We shall first understand one interpretation of *sapinda*. The *locus classicus* is the commentary of *Vijñāneśvara* on *Yāj. I. 52-53* a substantial portion of which is translated here: “*asapinda-dām*’ (in *Yāj. I. 52*) means a woman who is not a *sapinda* and *sapinda* means one who has the same *pinda* i. e. body (or particles of the body). *Sapinda* relationship (between two persons) arises from (their) being connected by having particles of the same body. Thus, the son has *sapinda* relationship with his father by reason of the (fact that) particles of the father’s body continue in him (the son). Similarly (there is *sapinda* relationship) with the paternal grandfather and the like (of the

1068. Vide *Bai Laksmi v. Kaliarsing* 2 Bom. L. R. 128 (marriage between Rajput male and a *brāhmaṇa* woman held to be invalid); *Bai Kashi v. Jamnadas* 14 Bom. L. R. 547 (marriage between a *brāhmaṇa* woman and *sūdra* male was held to be void); *Munnial v. Shiamia* I. L. R. 48. All. 670 (marriage between a *sūdra* male and a *vaiśya* female held to be invalid). Vide *Bai Gulab v. Jivanlal* I. L. R. 46 Bom. 871, *Natha v. Mehta Chotalal* I. L. R. 55 Bom. 1 (marriage of a *brāhmaṇa* male with a *sūdra* female was held valid); *Nalinaksha v. Rajanikanto* 35 U. W. N. 726. Vide *Padma Kumari v. Suraj Kumari* I. L. R. 28 All. 458.

1069. तेन विवाहे आशौचे धनग्रहणे च त्रिधा सापिण्ड्यं सिद्धम् । निर्णयसिन्धु III. पूर्वार्धे p. 284.

1070. पञ्चमास्तसमाहूर्ध्वं मातुः पितुः क्रमात् । सापिण्डता निवर्तेत सर्ववर्णेष्वयं विधिः ॥ नारद quoted in उद्वाहतरव p. 108. The printed नारद (खीर्षुस section 7 p. 108) reads आ सप्तमात्यञ्चमाह्वा वन्धुभ्यः पितृमातुः । अविवाह्याः सगोत्राः स्युः समानप्रवरास्तथा ॥. ‘तथा असपिण्डाश्च’ इत्येतत्सर्ववर्णिकम् । सर्वत्र सापिण्ड्यसद्भावात् । ‘असमानार्पणोत्रजाम्’ इत्येतद्वैवर्णिकविषयम् । मिताक्षरा on या. I. 53; छुद्धिचिन्तामणौ च ब्राह्मे ‘सर्वेषामेव वर्णानां विज्ञेया सातपौरुषी । सापिण्डता ततः पञ्चात्समानोदकधर्मता’ निर्णयसिन्धु, III पूर्वार्धे p. 284. The word अन्वय in the Mit. means ‘connection or continuity.’

grandson and the like) because through his (the grandson's) father particles of the body of the grandfather continue in (or are connected with) him (the grandson). Similarly (the son has *sapinda* relationship) with his mother because particles of the mother's body continue in him. Thus (a person has *sapinda* relationship) with his mother's father through his mother; so (one has *sapindatā*) with one's mother's sister or mother's brother also by reason of the connection with (or continuity of) particles of the same body (viz. the body of the maternal grandfather). So also (a person has *sapindatā*) with the paternal uncle, the paternal aunt and the like. Similarly the wife has *sapinda* relationship with the husband because she produces (with the husband) one body (viz. their son).¹⁰⁷¹ In the same way brother's wives (are *sapindas*) of each other, because they produce one body (viz. their respective sons) with their respective husbands who are produced from one body (viz. their husbands' father). In this manner wherever the word *sapinda* occurs, there one has to understand connection with (or continuity of)

1071. The words 'तथा पत्या सह पत्न्या एकशरीरान्भक्तया' are translated differently by Golap Chandra Sarkar in his 'Hindu Law' (7th ed. of 1936) pp. 81-82 as 'similarly arises the *sapinda* relationship of the husband with the lawfully wedded wife by reason of (their together) forming one body' (i. e. one person, hence the wife is called half the body of the husband). The learned author thinks that his translation is the correct one and others went wrong in translating as in the passage above. His translation cannot be accepted for several reasons. In the first place, it is opposed to the explanation of the Bālabhāṭṭī आरम्भकतयेति उभयारख्ये एकशरीरे स्वावयवान्वयादित्यर्थः (i. e. particles of the bodies of the husband and wife continue in or are concerned with one body, the son, that is produced by them both). That husband and wife are one is a pleasant fiction but here Vijñāneśvara is stressing the physical continuity of particles. The husband and wife though said to be one are still two bodies. No one says that their bodies become physically one. Besides the objection that if they do not beget a son, the husband and wife will not be *sapindas* is not sound. Rules and principles are laid down for generality of cases and regard is to be had to their capacity to produce a son. The निर्णयसिन्धु (III. पूर्वार्ध p. 280) shows that G. C. Sarkar is wrong 'एकस्य हि पितुर्मातुर्वा शरीरस्यावयवाः पुत्र-पौत्रादिषु साक्षात् परंपरया वा शुक्रशोणितदिरूपेणाहुस्तथाः । यद्यपि पत्न्याः पत्या सह आतृ-पत्नीनां च परस्परं नैतत्संभवति तथापि आधारत्वेनैकशरीरावयवान्वयोऽस्त्येव ।' A woman's husband's brother's wife is the receptacle (ādharā) for a son who is procreated by the husband's brother and his wife, the former of whom has particles of his father whose particles continue in the husband of the woman.

particles of the same body either directly or mediately.¹⁰⁷² On the word 'asapīṇḍam' it was explained that sapīṇḍa relationship arises immediately or mediately by reason of the connection with particles of the same body; this may prove to be too wide a statement, since in this beginningless *samsāra*, such a relationship might exist in some way or other between all men;¹⁰⁷³ therefore (the sage Yājñavalkya) states 'after the fifth on the mother's side and after the 7th on the father's side'. After the fifth on the mother's side i. e. in the mother's line and after the 7th on the father's side i. e. in the father's line sapīṇḍa relationship ceases. These words (viz. sapīṇḍa.....ceases) are to be taken as understood (in the text of Yāj.). Therefore the word 'sapīṇḍa' though it applies everywhere (i. e. to a very wide circle of persons) by the expressive (i. e. literal) power of its component parts, is restricted to a certain definite sphere, like the words 'nirmanthya'¹⁰⁷⁴ and 'pañkaja'. And so the six (ascendants) beginning with the father and the six descendants beginning with the son and the man himself as the seventh (in each case) are sapīṇḍas; wherever there is a divergence of the line, the counting shall be made until the seventh in descent is reached including him (i. e. the ancestor) from whom the line diverges; in this way the computation is to be made everywhere. And so the fifth (if a girl), who stands in the fifth generation when a computation is made beginning with the mother and going up to her (mother's) father, mother's paternal grandfather &c., is styled in an indirect way 'fifth

1072. There is direct continuity of particles of the bodies of the parents in the son and there is mediate connection of particles between grandparents and grandchildren and so on.

1073. As the world proceeded from the Creator every one has in his body parts of the Creator. In the Tai. Up. II. 6 we have 'सोऽकामयत बहु स्या प्रजायेय...इदं सर्वमसृजत' and also in छान्दोग्य VI. 2. 3. This is relied upon for limiting sapīṇḍya in Par. M. I. 2. p. 59. The words मातुः and पितुः of Yāj. are repeated in the Mit. and explained as मातुः संताने and पितुः संताने respectively and the Mit. adds that in Yāj. I. 53 (latter half) we have to understand the words सापिण्ड्यं निवर्तते (sapīṇḍa relationship ceases).

1074. The word 'pañkaja' literally means 'springing from mud' and may apply to every water plant, but it is restricted by usage (*rūḍhi*) to a lotus plant i. e. the wide literal or etymological (*yaugika*) meaning of the two parts 'pañka (mud) and 'ja' (springing from) is restricted by popular usage to a single plant springing from mud. 'Nirmanthya' is the word used for producing fire by friction. Literally the word means 'what is to be churned'.

from the mother's side' (by Yāj.). In the same way 'the seventh from the father's side' (in Yāj.) is she who is the seventh in degree (from an ancestor) when computation is made beginning from the father and proceeding up to the father's father and so on".

According to this explanation of the Mitakṣarā¹⁰⁷⁵ the following rules about prohibition based on sapaṇḍya follow: (1) In computing degrees the common ancestor is to be included; (2) regard is to be had to the father and mother of the bride and bridegroom both; (3) if computation is made from the mother's side of either the proposed bride or bridegroom, they must be beyond the fifth degree (i. e. they must be 6th or further on) from the common ancestor and if it is made through the father of either, they must be beyond the seventh from the common ancestor (i. e. they must be eighth &c.). This last postulates four different classes of cases, viz. descent from a common ancestor may be traced through the fathers of both bride and bridegroom or through the mother of both, or through the mother of the bridegroom and the father of the bride or through the father of the bridegroom and the mother of the bride. The method of computing degrees is entirely different from the English method as is made clear by the remarks of the Mit. translated above. The rules require that both must be beyond sapinda relationship as defined and limited above. For example, tracing descent through the fathers of both bride and bridegroom, if the bride is 8th from the common ancestor (called *kūṭastha* in dharmasāstra works) and the bridegroom is 6th, there can be no marriage, as though the bride is beyond the limits of sapinda relationship to the common ancestor, the bridegroom being 6th from the *kūṭastha* has sapinda relationship with the *kūṭastha*. These rules apply according to the Mit. only where the ancestors married women of their own varṇa. But if an ancestor married a brāhmaṇa girl and also a kṣatriya girl and a question arose about the eligibility of marriage among descendants of these two wives, then prohibition based on sapinda relationship extends up to only three degrees (and not seven or five).^{1075a}

1075. Vide extract (text) from the mitakṣarā in appendix.

1075a. एतच्च समानजातीये दृष्टव्यम् । विजातीये तु विशेषः । ... त्रिपुरुषमेव सापिण्ड्यमिति । मितः on या. I. 53; the उद्वाहृतत्वं p. 109 explains differently the statement of Paiṭhīnāsī. तस्मान्मदनपारिजाताद्युक्तदिशा दत्तकसापत्नसंबन्धाद्यनुपवेशे ब्राह्मणादीनां क्षत्रियादिसापिण्ड्यविषये वा पूर्वोक्तानि नेयानि न त्वनुकल्प इति प्रमितव्यम् निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्धे p. 285; the मदनपारिजात pp. 138-140 gives these explanations.

It should not be supposed that these rules of the Mit. are universally observed. The texts themselves are in conflict. Further, the customs and usages as to prohibited degrees for marriage are so divergent in the various parts of India and among the hundreds of castes and sub-castes that it is impossible to state any rule as universally or even generally applicable. A few examples of conflict among the smṛtis are cited by the Mit. itself. Vas. Dh. S. (8, 2) says '(he may marry) the fifth on the mother's side and 7th on the father's side', while Yāj. as interpreted by the Mit. makes it necessary that the girl to be eligible must be 6th from the common ancestor traced through the mother and 8th when traced through the father. Pāṭhīnāsī says 'the girl must be beyond three degrees on the mother's¹⁰⁷⁶ side and five degrees on the father's side'. These two are explained away by the Mit. by saying that these texts do not authorise a marriage with a girl who is distant from the common ancestor by a lesser number of degrees than those propounded by Yāj. but they only prohibit marriage with girls who are nearer in degrees than those stated in those texts. But this reconciliation of the conflict among the smṛtis is not at all satisfactory.

The following diagrams illustrate the application of the rules of sapinda relationship according to the Mitākṣarā. In all of them A represents the common ancestor and the letters S and D represent respectively sons and daughters. According to the Mit. computation has to be made from (and inclusive of) the common ancestor in all cases and both the bride and bridegroom have to be beyond the prohibited degrees.¹⁰⁷⁷

1076. यदपि वसिष्ठेनोक्तं पञ्चमीं सप्तमीं चैव मातुतः पितृवस्तथेति, त्रीनतीत्य मातुतः पञ्चातीत्य च पितृव इति च पैठीनसिना तदप्यर्वाङ्मनिषेधार्थं न पुनस्तत्प्राप्त्यर्थमिति सर्वस्मृतीनामविरोधः। मिता on या. I. 53; the words पञ्चमीं मातृवन्धुभ्यः सप्तमीं पितृवन्धुभ्यः are वसिष्ठधर्मसूत्र 8. 2 (the preceding सूत्र being गृहस्थो भार्यां विन्देत्). The निर्णयसिन्धु (III. पूर्वार्ध pp. 284-285) collects together more such passages, holds that they are not to be construed as allowing an option, but as referring to descendants one of whose ancestors had been adopted or where the descendants of one ancestor trace descent through a brāhmaṇa wife and a kṣatriya wife. सं. कौ. (pp. 612-613) also quotes passages similar to those in the निर्णयसिन्धु, but seems to hold that there is an option due to family or local usages. Vide सं. प्र. pp. 707-718.

1077. The विश्वरूपसमुच्चय quoted in the उद्वाहतरव (p. 116) is quite explicit 'संतानो भिद्यते यस्मात्पूर्वजादुभयत्र च । तमादाय गणेक्षीमास्वरं यावच्च कन्यकाश्च ॥'

No. 1

A

|

D (2)	D (2)
S (3)	S (3)
S (4)	S (4)
S (5)	D (5)
S (6)	S (6)
S (7)	S (7)
D (8)	S (8)

Here a valid marriage might take place between S(8) and D(8) because sapiṇḍa relationship for both is traced through their fathers and both are removed from the common ancestor A by more than seven degrees or generations.

No. 2

A

|

S (2)	S (2)
S (3)	S (3)
S (4)	S (4)
D (5)	D (5)
S (6)	D (6)

Here a valid marriage may take place between S (6) and D (6) because sapiṇḍa relationship of both is in this case traced through their mothers and they are both removed from the common ancestor by more than five degrees.

No. 3

A

|

S (2)	S (2)
S (3)	S (3)
S (4)	S (4)
D (5)	D (5)
S (6)	D (6)
D (7)	S (7)

Here a marriage may take place between S (6) and D (6) because their sapiṇḍa relationship is to be traced through their mothers and both are removed from the common ancestors by more than five degrees. But a marriage cannot take place between S (7) and D (7) as the sapiṇḍa relationship of D (7) is to be traced through her father and she is not more than 7 degrees from the common ancestor.

No. 4

A

|

S (2)	S (2)
S (3)	S (3)
S (4)	S (4)
D (5)	S (5)
D (6)	S (6)

Here a marriage cannot take place between D (6) and S (6) as the sapiṇḍa relationship in the latter's case is to be traced through his father and he is not more than seven degrees removed from the common ancestor, though D (6) whose sapiṇḍa relationship is to be traced through her mother is more than five degrees from the common ancestor. According to Bālabhāṭṭa and some others marriage will take place as D(6) is beyond five degrees (tracing through her mother), though S(6) is within 7 degrees (tracing descent through his father) and so is not outside sapiṇḍa limits.

All these four examples are taken from the Dharmasindhu (III Pūrvārdha p. 226-227). No. 3 illustrates what is called

sapinda relationship by 'frog's leap'.¹⁰⁷⁸ Just as a frog leaps from one spot to another leaving intervening objects untouched, so in this example No. 3, there is sāpindya between D(5) and D(5), but S(6) and D(6) are left unaffected by sāpindya (as relationship is traced through the mothers of both), while sāpindya reverts to affect D(7) and S(7). The maxim of 'frog's leap' is a very ancient one, being exemplified by the Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali.¹⁰⁷⁹

The rules about prohibition of marriage on the ground of sapinda relationship, particularly where cognates (persons connected through females) were concerned, have not been observed in numerous instances over wide areas from very ancient times. One striking illustration is the question whether a man can marry his maternal uncle's or his paternal aunt's daughter, particularly the former. On this point opinion has been sharply divided from ancient times. Āp. Dh. S. I. 7. 21. 8 includes among *patanīya* actions (mortal sins) sexual intercourse with the uterine relations (mothers and sisters) of one's parents and their children. This would prohibit marriage with one's maternal uncle's or paternal aunt's daughter. Baud. Dh. S. I.¹⁰⁸⁰ 1. 19-26 notes that there were five practices peculiar to the south viz. eating in the company of one whose upanayana has not been performed, to eat in the company of one's wife, to eat stale food, to marry the daughter of the maternal uncle or of a paternal aunt and there were five practices peculiar to the north. Then he proceeds to state the argument that those who follow the practices mentioned by him in countries other than those where they prevail incur sin, that Gautama (XI. 20) holds this last argument to be wrong and then Baud. states his own

1078. कूटस्थात्पञ्चम्योः कन्ययोः संततौ मातृद्वारकत्वात्सापिण्ड्यनिवृत्तिः, पञ्चम्योः कन्ययोर्द्यौः पुत्रौ तयोः संततौ पितृद्वारकत्वात्सापिण्ड्यमनुवर्तत इतीदं मण्डूककुतिसापिण्ड्यम् । धर्मसिन्धु III. पूर्वार्ध p. 227; यत्र तु मध्ये विच्छिन्नमपि सापिण्ड्यं मण्डूककुतिवत्पुनरनुवर्तते यथा कूटस्थात्पञ्चम्योः कन्ययोः पुत्रौ तत्र निवृत्तिः तदपत्ययोस्त्ववृत्तिस्तत्रापि न सापिण्ड्या-सापिण्ड्ययोर्द्वौः संबन्धिभेदात् । तेन तत्र न विवाहः । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 283. The सं. कौ. p. 612 refers to this.

1079. मण्डूकगतयोऽधिकाराः । यथा मण्डूका उत्क्रुत्योत्क्रुत्य गच्छन्ति तद्वदधिकाराः । महाभाष्य vol. I. p. 44 and vol. III. p. 25.

1080. पञ्चधा विभ्रतिपत्तिर्दक्षिणतस्तथोत्तरतः । यानि दक्षिणतस्तानि व्याख्यास्यामः । यथैतदनुपेतेन सह भोजनं स्त्रिया सह भोजनं पर्युषितभोजनं मातुलपितृवृषसुहितुगमनमिति । ... इतरदितरस्मिन्कुर्वन्नुप्यतीतरदितरस्मिन् । ... मिथैतदिति गौतमः । उभयं चैव नाद्रियेत शिष्टस्मृतिविरोधदर्शनात् बी. घ. सू. I. 1. 19-26.

view that one should pay no heed to either set of practices, as both are opposed to *smṛtis* and the views of *śiṣṭas*. From this it is clear that a marriage with one's maternal uncle's daughter or paternal aunt's daughter was in vogue in the south (below the Narmadā probably) long before the Baud. Dh. S. (i. e. several centuries before the Christian era) and that North India did not go in for such marriages and that orthodox *sūtra* writers like Gautama and Baudhāyana reprobated such practices. Manu (XI. 172-173) forbids such marriages "on approaching (for carnal intercourse) the daughter of one's father's sister or of one's mother's sister or of mother's full brother, a man must undergo the penance called 'cāndrāyana'. A wise man should not take as his wife (any one of) these; they are not fit to be wedded because they are (*sapiṇḍa*) relatives, for by wedding them one sinks low (i. e. falls into hell or loses caste)". Haradatta on Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 16 quotes a verse from Śātātapa¹⁰⁸¹ prescribing the penance of *cāndrāyana* for marrying one's maternal uncle's daughter or a girl having the same gotra as one's mother's gotra (i. e. maternal grandfather's gotra) or a *sapṛavara* girl and a text of Sumantu forbidding marriage with the daughter of the brother of one's mother or step-mother. It would be seen that all these relatives are third from the common ancestor and so are very much within the prohibition against marrying a *sapiṇḍa*, whatever be the number of prohibited degrees for marriage that are accepted. Kumārila in his *Tantravārtika* while discussing the scope and validity of *sadācāra* (on Jaimini I. 3.7) enumerates many lapses from good conduct attributed to great men and heroes of the past and tries to explain away those violations of good conduct. The charge brought against Vāsudeva (Kṛṣṇa) and Arjuna, the central heroes of the Mahābhārata, is that they respectively married Rukmiṇī and Subhadrā who were their maternal uncle's daughters (this being forbidden). Kumārila makes very scathing remarks against this practice¹⁰⁸² prevalent among southerners and then refutes this charge by saying that although in the Mahābhārata (Ādiparva 219. 17-18) Subhadrā is described as the daughter of

1081. शातातपः । मातुलस्य सुतामुद्धृत्वा मातुगोत्रां तथैव च । समानप्रवरां चैव द्विज-
श्चाण्ड्रायणं चरेत् ॥ सुमन्तुः ... पितृपत्न्यः सर्वा मातरस्तद्भ्रातरो मातुलास्तसुता मातुलसुतास्त-
स्मात्ता नोपयन्तस्या इति । हरदत्त on आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 11. 16.

1082. स्वमातुलसुतां प्राप्य दाक्षिणात्यरतु तुष्यति । अन्ये तु सम्यलीकेन मनसा तत्र कुर्वन्ति ॥ तन्त्रवार्तिका p. 204.

Vasudeva and sister ¹⁰⁸³ of Kṛṣṇa, she was really not so, but that she was Vāsudeva's mother's sister's daughter or was the daughter's daughter of the sister of the father of Vāsudeva's mother (or step-mother Rohiṇī). ¹⁰⁸⁴ Kumārila argues that such female cousins one degree or several degrees removed are often spoken of as sisters. Vide my notes to the Vyavahāramayūkha pp. 200-202 where this matter is fully explained. This reply of Kumārila well illustrates the method of dealing with inconvenient texts adopted by mīmāṃsakas like Kumārila when the texts run counter to their cherished views. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. III. 254 quotes Manu XI. 172 and verses of Saṃvarta prescribing the penance of *Parāka* for carnal intercourse with one's maternal uncle's daughter. ¹⁰⁸⁵ Medhātithi on Manu II. 18 refers to this practice as prevalent in some countries, and says it is opposed to the rule of Gautama (IV. 3) about prohibition on the ground of *sāpindya* and explains how such practices might have arisen. Persons making love to the handsome daughters of their maternal uncles married them for fear that they might otherwise be punished by the king; it may be that others literally following the words of Manu IV. 178 held by the practice which their forefathers resorted to for fear of punishment. ¹⁰⁸⁶ Among medieval writers, some condemn this practice, others justify it. Aparārka (pp. 82-84) after a lengthy discussion condemns marriage with maternal uncle's daughter. The Nirṇayasindhu also does the same (p. 286).

Among those who support marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter the most prominent are the Sm. C. (I. pp. 70-74) and the Par. M. (I. 2. pp. 63-68). They both admit that there are

1083. शूर had a son वसुदेव and a daughter पूषा (who being given in adoption to कुन्तिभोज was called कुन्ती). Vide आदिपर्व 111. 1-3. The son of पूषा (कुन्ती) was अर्जुन. सुभद्रा is described in the आदिपर्व as the daughter of वसुदेव and sister of वासुदेव (कृष्ण). If these words are literally understood सुभद्रा would be Arjuna's maternal uncle's daughter.

1084. यद्यपि वासुदेवस्वसेति सुभद्राख्याता तथाप्युत्पत्तौ बलदेववासुदेवयोरेकानं-
शयाश्च निजत्वात्वाख्यान्मातृवस्वीया सुभद्रा तस्य मातृपितृस्वस्वीयादुहिता वेति परिणयाभ्य-
सृजानाद् विज्ञायते । तन्त्रवार्तिक p. 210.

1085. मातुलानीं तथा श्वश्रू सुतां चै मातुलस्य च । एता गत्वा स्त्रियो मोहात्पराकेण
विश्रुच्यति ॥ संवर्त quoted by विश्वरूप on या. III. 254.

1086. किं च कारणग्रहाच्चैवमादेराचारस्य । रूपवतीं मातुलकन्यां कामयमाना राज-
भयाद्बलवन्तः कन्यागमनदण्डो माभूदिति । अन्ये त्वविद्वांसो ' येनास्य पितरो याताः ' इत्यस्य
यथाश्रुतमर्थं गृहीत्वा धर्मोपनिमित्तिं प्रतिपन्नाः । मेधा० on मनु II. 18.

passages of Manu, Śātātapa, Sumantu (all quoted above) and others condemning marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter, yet they say that there are passages of the Veda and some smṛtis in support of it and śiṣṭas (learned and respectable persons) observe this practice and so such marriages are *sadūcāra* and not forbidden. They rely upon two Vedic passages; one is from the Śat. Br. I. 8. 3. 6 (S. B. E. vol. XII. p. 238) "thus the separation (of the eater and the eaten) is effected in one and the same act; hence from one and the same man spring both the enjoyer (the husband) and the enjoyed (the wife); for now kinsfolk live sporting and rejoicing together saying 'in the fourth or third man (generation) we shall unite'. And this is so in accordance with that (separation of the spoons)." ¹⁰⁸⁷ The mention of the union in the third generation is understood by the Sm. C. as referring to the marriage of a person with his maternal uncle's or paternal aunt's daughter. Viśvarūpa also refers to this passage (on Yāj. I. 53), but he does not draw the inference that such marriages are authorized by the Veda. Another Vedic verse is relied upon by the Sm. C. and Par. M. and other works. It is a verse from a Khila sūkta 'Come, O Indra, by commended paths to this our sacrifice and partake of your portion. They (the priests) have offered the fat seasoned with ghee that is thy portion, as the maternal uncle's daughter or the paternal aunt's daughter (is one's lot in marriage)'. ¹⁰⁸⁸ This verse is referred to by Viśvarūpa on Yāj. (I. 53) but his explanation of it is different viz. that it really indicates one out of four different alternatives

1087. समान एव कर्मन् व्याक्रियते तस्मात्समानादेव पुरुषादत्ता चाद्यश्च जायेते इदं हि चतुर्थे पुरुषे तृतीये संगच्छामहे इति वि देवं दीव्यमाना जात्या आसते । एतस्माद् तत् । शतपथ I. 8. 3. 6; उत हि तृतीये पुरुषे इत्याह । अनेन दौहित्रपौत्रयोर्मातुलदुहित्रपैतृष्वसेयी-परिणयनमुक्तं भवति । तयोः कूटस्थमारभ्य तृतीयत्वात् । संगच्छामहे विवहामहे इत्यर्थः । स्मृतिच० I. p. 72.

1088. Vide Aufrecht's R̥gveda vol. II. p. 672. The verse is आया-हीन्द्र पथिभिरील्लितेभिर्यज्ञामिन् नो भागधेयं जुषस्व । तृतां जहुर्मातुलस्येव योषा भागस्ते पैतृष्वसेयी वपामिन् ॥ Aufrecht reads तृता जुहुः for तृतां जहुः. This occurs also in the निरुक्तपरिशिष्ट (XIV. 31 ed. by Roth, though some Mss omit it), where the reading is जुहुः for जहुः अपरार्क reads 'तृतां जहुर्मातुलस्येव ते तव भागः पैतृष्वसेयीमपामिवैवः ।'. The text as printed in अपरार्क seems to be corrupt. अपरार्क takes जहुः as meaning त्यक्तवन्तः and adds यथा पैतृष्वसेयीं भगिनीं भार्यात्वेनात्यन्तानभिलषणीयां त्यजन्ति &c. (p. 83).

as regards prohibited degrees for marriage.¹⁰⁸⁹ Aparārka (p. 83) on Yāj. I. 53 reads the latter half somewhat differently and so interprets it as to spell out of it a prohibition against marrying a maternal uncle's daughter. This text is quoted in I. L. R. 7 Mad. 548 at p. 550. The Smṛticandrikā relies upon a passage of the Caturvimsātimata that allows a marriage of persons who are third or fourth in descent from a common ancestor on both sides (on the mother's or father's side). There is also a text of Brhaspati which prescribes that the practices of the countries, castes and families should be guarded (or enforced) by the king as they have been in vogue from past times, otherwise the subjects become inflamed and among such practices he instances 'Brāhmaṇas in the south marry the maternal uncle's daughter'.¹⁰⁹⁰ So there is smṛti authority for such marriages. Besides southern śiṣṭas deeply read in the Vedas and acting according to the meaning of the Veda practise marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter. Here both Sm. C. and Par. M. are on very firm ground. The Smṛtimuktāphala of Vaidyanātha says 'among the Āndhras śiṣṭas deeply read in the Vedas follow the practice of *mātulasutā-pariṇayana* and among the Draviḍas respectable people allow marriage of a person with a girl who is fourth in descent from the common ancestor'.¹⁰⁹¹ Among several castes in the Deccan and the Madras Presidency, not only is marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter allowed, but it is highly commended. Even certain brāhmaṇa castes like the Deśastha brāhmaṇas of the Karpāṭska and Karhādā brāhmaṇas observe this practice in modern times. The Saṁskārakaustubha (pp. 616-620) and the Dharmasindhu support *mātulasutā-pariṇayana*.

Both the Sm. C. and Par. M. say that though the Vedic passage from the Śatapatha is a mere arthavāda (a laudatory statement) in praise of a Vedic act, yet on the analogy of the words 'he holds (the samidh) above (the sruc) for gods', which

1089. ते चामी श्रुतिस्मृत्यनुसाराञ्चत्वारः कल्पः । उर्ध्वं सप्तमात् पञ्चमाद्वैत्येकः । पञ्चमे मातुलः सप्तमे पितुल इति द्वितीयः । उभयतः पञ्चम इति तृतीयः । चतुर्थेपीति चतुर्थः । पूर्वः पूर्वः श्रेयान् । स्त्रीविषयश्चान्त्यः कल्पः ... एवं च वरचतुर्थे न विवाहः । मन्त्रवर्णोप्येवमेव व्याख्येयः । विश्वरूप on या. I. 53.

1090. देशजातिकुलानां च ये धर्माः प्राकृपवर्तिताः । तथैव ते पालनीयाः प्रजाः प्रक्षुष्यतेऽन्यथा ॥ ... उद्बुध्यते दाक्षिणात्यैर्मातुलस्य सुता द्विजैः । बृहस्पति quoted in स्मृतिच० I, p. 10, व्यवहारमयूख p. 7.

1091. दाक्षिणात्यानां मध्ये आन्ध्रेषु त्रैविध्यवृद्धा वेदार्थानुष्ठातारः शिष्टा अपि मातुलादिद्विपुपरिणयनमाचरन्ति । इविहेषु तथाविधाः शिष्टाः चतुर्थ्यादिविवाहमाचरन्ति । स्मृतिषु. (वर्णाश्रम p. 131).

are construed by Jaimini (III. 4. 15) as a *vidhi* (as a positive rule) on account of their *apūrvatva* (not being known from any other source), these words of the Śatapatha are also to be construed as a *vidhi* (of the marriage with maternal uncle's daughter).¹⁰⁹² The Sm. C. also presses into service the Vedic verse (Rg. X. 16. 5) addressed by Yami to Yama. But that mantra does not clearly refer to cross-cousin marriages.

The *smṛti* passages that condemn cross-cousin marriages are explained in a peculiar manner by the Sm. C. and the Par. M. When a woman is married in one of the four forms, *brāhma* &c., she passes into the *gotra* of her husband, becomes a *sapiṇḍa* in the husband's family and so she is severed from her father's family (as to *gotra* and *sapiṇḍa* relationship); but when a woman is married in the *āsura*, *gāndhārva* and other forms, she does not pass over into the *gotra* of her husband, but remains in the *gotra* of the father and her *sapiṇḍa* relationship with her father and brother continues. Therefore the son of such a woman, if he marries the daughter of his mother's brother, would be marrying a girl who is a *sagotra* and *sapiṇḍa* of his mother. The Sm. C. and the Par. M. and other works say that the *smṛti* texts forbidding marriage with maternal uncle's daughter refer to a person whose mother was married in the *gāndhārva*, *āsura* and the other two forms, but not to a person whose mother was married in the *brāhma* and the three other approved forms. This is the reasoning of the Sm. C. and the Par. M.¹⁰⁹³

1092. Jaimini's *sūtra* is विधिर्वा धारणेऽपूर्वत्वात् III. 4. 15. This is not commented upon by Śābara; but the *Tantravārtika*, which notices this fact, assigns several reasons for this omission and explains it as follows: in the महापितृयज्ञ there is a passage अधस्तात्सन्निधिं धारयन्ननुद्वेदुपरि हि देवेभ्यो धारयति. In the *homa* for *pitrs* the *samīdh* is held below the *sruc* in which the *havis* has been placed; in this passage it is said that when the oblation is to be offered to the gods the *samīdh* is to be held over the *sruc* (in which the oblation is placed before being thrown into the fire). Here though the particle 'hi' (showing reason) is employed and though the present 'dhārayati' is used (and not the potential as is usual in *vidhis*), it is not a mere *arthavāda* but a *vidhi*. So also in the Śat. Br. there is a *vidhi* about 'mātula-sutāpariṇayana.' तेनोपरिधारणमग्रतम् । न चाग्रतः हेतुवन्निगदेन वर्तमानापदेशेन बालुवद्वित् शक्यम् । पिड्ये होमे अधस्तात् स्रग्दण्डस्य समिद्धारयितव्या देवे च पुनरुपरिष्ठादिति । तन्त्रवार्तिका p. 899.

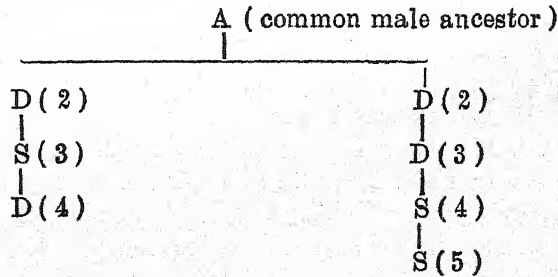
1093. गान्धर्वादिविवाहेषु कन्याप्रदाभावेन पितृगोत्रसापिण्डयोरनिवृत्तेः । तथा मार्कण्डेयपुराणम् । ब्राह्मादिषु विवाहेषु या तूदा कन्यका भवेत् । भर्तृगोत्रेण कर्तव्या तस्याः पिण्डोदकक्रिया ॥ गान्धर्वादिविवाहेषु पितृगोत्रेण धर्मवित् । ... एतेन मातुलसुताविवाहविषयेऽपि विवादः परास्तः । तथाहि तन्निवेधवचनानि गान्धर्वादिविवाहोदजविषयाणि तत्र सापिण्ड्यनिवृत्तेरभावात् तदनुग्रहकश्चुतिसृत्तिसदाचारात् । न ब्राह्मादिविवाहोदजविषयाणि । परा. मा. I. 2. p. 63-64.

These rules about prohibition on the ground of sapinda relationship cause great difficulties in modern times, when owing to the rapid spread of co-education and the rise in the marriageable age of girls, love marriages have become somewhat frequent. Lovers do not stop to consider such (to them) trivial matters as sapinda relationship, but the law is often inexorable. The narrowing of the limits of sapinda relationship is permitted by the authors of commentaries and digests only on the ground of immemorial family, caste or local usage. For example, the same authors, who hold that marriage with the maternal uncle's daughter is sanctioned by Vedic texts and custom, condemn and forbid marriage with one's paternal aunt's daughter or with one's maternal aunt's daughter (vide below). There are a few verses cited from the smṛtis which favour the narrowing down of sapinda relationship. For example, the *Caturviṃśatimata*^{1093a} states 'According to Śākāṭyāna there is no blame in marrying a girl who is 7th or 6th or 5th (from the common ancestor); similarly Manu, Pārāśarya, Yama and Āṅgīras say that one may marry a girl who is third or fourth (from the common ancestor) on both sides (i. e. from her father's side or mother's side). Whoever enters into such marriage alliances by relying on the usage of his country or of his family is always entitled to associate with people and this is seen from the Veda'. Pārāśara (as quoted in the *Nirṇayasindhu* and other works) says 'a man who is himself fourth or fifth (from the common ancestor) may according to Pārāśara's view marry a girl who is 4th or 6th (from the common ancestor), but one who is himself fifth cannot marry a girl who is also fifth (from the common ancestor)'. The *Saṃskārakaustubha*, the *Sāpindyaḍīpikā* and a few digests hold these verses authoritative and allow such marriages provided they are in accordance with local or family usage. As against this the following facts have to be remembered. One of the maxims of interpretation is that where there is conflict between smṛti texts, the preferable rule is to follow the opinion of the majority.^{1093b} Gaut., Manu,

1093 a. सप्तमीं च तथा षष्ठीं पञ्चमीं च तथैव च । एवमुद्वाहयेत्कन्यां न दोषः शाक-
टायनः । तृतीयां वा चतुर्थीं वा पक्षयोर्वभयोरपि । विवाहयेन्मनुः प्राह पाराशर्योऽङ्गिरा यमः ।
यस्तु देशादुरूपेण कुलमार्गेण चोद्बहेत् । नित्यं स व्यवहार्यः स्याद्वेदाच्चैतत्प्रदृश्यते । इति चतु-
विंशतिमतात् । चतुर्थीमुद्बहेत्कन्यां चतुर्थः पञ्चमोपि वा । पाराशरमते षष्ठीं पञ्चमो न तु पञ्च-
मीम् । इति पाराशरोक्तेश्च । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्धे p. 285.

1093 b. विरोधो यत्र वाक्यानां प्रामाण्यं तत्र भूयसात् । तुल्यप्रमाणसत्त्वे तु न्याय एव
प्रवर्तते ॥ quoted in *मलमासतत्त्व* p. 767.

Yāj., Marici and numerous other smṛtikāras are opposed to these dicta. The second rule is that Manu has the highest authority among smṛtis and that smṛti which is opposed to the dicta of Manu is not commended.^{1093c} The above passages are opposed to the words of Manu on sapinda relationship and about marrying a maternal uncle's daughter (Manu V. 60, III. 5, XI. 171-172). A third point about the above texts is that several eminent works like the Nirpayasindhu and the Dharmasindhu^{1093d} hold that some of these verses are baseless and not genuine and that they really refer to persons adopted or persons descended from wives of different castes of the same common ancestor; and lastly even those works that support such narrowing of sapinda relationship for marriage do not advocate it for all and sundry, but only where there is a local or family usage to that effect. Therefore, marriages among persons who are 3rd or 4th or 5th from the common ancestor cannot be regarded as valid in general, but only on the ground of usage. The following diagram will furnish some examples of the narrowing down of sapinda relationship.



Here ordinarily there can be no valid marriage between D (4) and S (4) or S (5) because they are both not beyond even the fifth degree from the common ancestor; but if the verses of the Caturvimsatimata and Parāśara be followed the marriages are valid. It should be noted that even under the Special Marriage Act (III of 1872) marriage between D (4) and S (4) or S (5)

1093 c. वेदार्थोपनिबन्धुत्वाद्याधान्यं तु मनुस्मृतौ । मन्वर्थविपरीता या स्मृतिः सा न प्रशस्यते ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by अपरार्क on या. II. 21 and कुट्टक on मनु I. 1.

1093 d. यानि तु चतुर्थीमुद्गहेत्कन्यां चतुर्थः पञ्चमो वरः । इत्यादिवचनानि तेषु कानिचिन्निर्मूलानि कानिचिद्विज्ञेयानि सापिण्ड्यविषयतया विप्राणां क्षत्रियादिवु सापिण्ड्यविषयतया वा नेपानि-इति निर्णयसिन्धुमतम् । धर्मसिन्धु III पूर्वार्थ p. 228. येषां कुले देशे चाबुक्लपत्वेन सापिण्ड्यसङ्कोचः परंपरया समागतस्तेषां सापिण्ड्यसङ्कोचेन विवाहो न दोषाय स्वकुलदेशविरुद्धेन सापिण्ड्यसङ्कोचेन विवाहे दोषो भवत्येव । धर्मसिन्धु III. पूर्वार्थ p. 228 summarizing the view of the संस्कारकौस्तुभ.

will not be valid according to the 2nd proviso to sec. 2. The Nirayasinidhu¹⁰⁹³ was not prepared to concede that such marriages, though not the best, were at least allowable as inferior (*anukalpa*). The Dharmasinidhu¹⁰⁹³ stated that only in calamities when one is unable to secure a girl one may enter into a marriage where sapinda relationship is narrowed down, but that those who can secure another girl should not go in for it, as the sin of incest would be incurred. Such marriages did not take place except during the last few years and so the courts have not yet pronounced on their validity. The preceding remarks are made by way of caution only and it is quite possible that courts may find out some way to uphold the marriages when they come before them many years after their celebration. But it is well to remember that the validity of such marriages in castes that have no usage to that effect is, to say the least, doubtful.

There is a great¹⁰⁹⁴ deal of discussion in the smrtis and *nibandhas* on the gotra of a woman. Āśv. gr. S. I. 8. 12 is interpreted by some as laying down that husband and wife become of one gotra one year after marriage. Laghu Hārīta appears to refer to this and also proposes an option that she takes up the husband's gotra immediately after marriage. Yama 86 and Likhita 25 say that after marriage on the 4th night a bride becomes one with her husband as to gotra, pinda and āsauca; while Yama 78 and Likhita 26 state that she loses her father's gotra on taking the seventh step. The Mīt. on Yāj. I. 254 has a long note on this subject, states that there are two views and finally reaches the conclusion that a woman retains her father's gotra even after marriage for *piṇḍadāna*, if she was a putrikā or was married in the āsura and the following forms; but if she was married in the brāhma and other approved

1093 e. न त्वनुकल्प इति भ्रमितव्यम् । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 285.

1093 f. अयं सापिण्ड्यसङ्कोचेन विवाहः सङ्कोटेण्वशक्तेन कार्यः कन्यान्तरालाभे शक्तैर्न कार्याः शुक्रतल्पादिदोषस्थूतेः । सापिण्ड्यसङ्कोचवाक्यानामशक्तविषयत्वस्य स्पष्टत्वात् । धर्मसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 229.

1094. संवत्सरे वैक कृषिर्जायते । आश्व. शु. I. 8. 12; नारायण notes अन्ये त्वाहुः व्रतान्ते एक कृषिः संपद्यते । पितृगोत्रं विहाय पतिगोत्रं भजत इत्यर्थः ।; संवत्सरे व्यतीते तु वद्गोत्रं नीयते पुनः । विः परिग्रहणादशेर्हृदयालम्भनात्तथा । स्वामिगोत्रेण कर्तव्या पिण्डदानोदकक्रिया ॥ लघुहाराति v. 62-63; विवाहे चैव निर्वृते चतुर्थेहनि रात्रिषु । एकत्वं सा गता भर्तुः पिण्डे गोत्रे च सूतके ॥ स्वगोत्राद् ग्रश्यते नारी विवाहात् सप्तमे पदे । भर्तृगोत्रेण कर्तव्या दानपिण्डोदकक्रियाः । लिखित 25-26 and यम 86, 78. The words एकत्वं...सूतके are quoted by विश्वरूप on या I. 254 and the verse स्वगोत्राद् is quoted by the Mita. on या. I. 254.

forms, there was an option viz. pinda may be offered to one's mother by one's father's gotra or by her father's gotra according to family usage. Vide also Aparārka pp. 432, 542, Sm. C. I. p. 69.

Both of them allow a person's marriage with his paternal aunt's daughter. Certain inscriptions at Nāgārjunikōṇḍa (of about the 3rd century A. D.) establish that the king Siri Virapurisadata, son of Siri Chāntamūla who had performed the Vājapeya, Aśvamedha and other sacrifices, married a daughter of his paternal aunt (E. I. vol. 20 at p. 4). There are other authors, however, who, while allowing marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter, disallow it with a paternal aunt's daughter. For example, the Nirṇayasindhu says that, though it follows from the same Vedic passages that one's paternal aunt's daughter may be married, yet such a marriage should not be contracted as it is hateful to the people, as there are no other passages laying down the advisability of such marriages.¹⁰⁹⁵ Similarly the Sm. C. (I. p. 71) and Par. M. (I. 2. p. 65) say that though marriage with one's mother's sister or mother's sister's daughter also should be allowed on the same grounds as those urged in favour of the marriage with the maternal uncle's daughter, yet it is forbidden since it is condemned by śiṣṭas and is hateful to the people and both again rely on Yāj. I. 156.¹⁰⁹⁶

Another and a very striking instance of the limits of sapinda relationship not being observed is the practice among certain sections of even brāhmanas (such as some Deśasthas in Karnāṭaka and Mysore) marrying their own sister's daughter (i. e. their own niece). Vide Mandlik's Hindu Law p. 425. In *Ramangavda v. Shivaji*, the Bombay High Court held that marriage with one's sister's daughter was invalid among brāhmanas; but in that case no custom as to the validity of

1095. यद्यपि पितृष्वसृकन्योद्वाहोपि प्राप्तस्तथाप्यस्वर्ग्यं लोकविद्विष्टं धर्म्यमप्याचरेत्तु इति निषेधाद्वचनान्तरेण तदुद्वाहस्याविधानाच्च न कार्यः। निर्णयसिन्धु III, पूर्वार्ध p. 286. The half verse अस्वर्ग्यं चरेत्तु is ya. I. 156.

1096. ननु च यदि मातुस्सपिण्डतया मातुलसुता परिणेत्या तथाविधा मातृष्वसा तदुद्वाहता च किमिति न परिणेत्या। उच्यते। सत्यम्। न ब्रूमः शास्त्रतो न परिणेत्येति किं तु लोकविरुद्धत्वात्। यच्च धर्म्यमपि लोकविरुद्धं तज्ज्ञातुं शक्यम्। यदुक्तं मनुना। अस्वर्ग्यं लोकविद्विष्टं धर्म्यमप्याचरेत्तु ॥ स्मृतिच. I. p. 71; vide स्मृतिच. (वर्णाश्रम p. 131) for almost the same words.

such marriages was alleged¹⁰⁹⁷. In *Vellanki Ramakrishna v. Kotagiri Subbamma* 43 Mad. 830 at p. 834 it is stated that in the Velama caste a man may marry his sister's daughter.

On account of these divergences about the limits of prohibited degrees for marriage it appears that the remarks of the *Saṃskārakaustubha* (p. 620) and of the *Dharmasindhu* (p. 228) are most sensible and practical. They say that even in the Kali age¹⁰⁹⁸ those, in whose families or countries the limits of sapinda relationship are narrowed down and marriage with the maternal uncle's daughter has been in vogue for ages, may do so, that they incur no blame by such marriages, that others (among whom there is no such custom) may without blame invite such persons for śrāddhas and may take girls from their families in marriage and that the passages quoted by Hemādri forbidding their being invited at śrāddhas only apply to those who marry a maternal uncle's daughter even though they have no such family or local usage.¹⁰⁹⁹

Another question is how far sapinda relationship holds good in the case of girls belonging to the family from which one's step-mother comes. The *Udvāhatattva* (p. 118), the *Nirṇayasindhu* (p. 289), the *Sam. Pr.* (pp. 695-699), *Saṃskāra-Kaustubha* (pp. 621-630) and the *Dharmasindhu* (p. 230) deal with this matter. They all rely on a text of Sumantu¹¹⁰⁰ 'all the wives of one's father are mothers, the brothers of these are one's maternal uncles, their sisters are one's mother's sisters, the daughters of these are one's sisters and the children of these

1097. Vide Printed Judgments (of the Bombay High Court) for 1876 p. 73.

1098. The *स्मृतिच.* I. p. 12 and the *निर्णयसिन्धु* (p. 367) include मातृ-सापिण्डाविवाह among कलिवर्ज्य.

1099. अतः सिद्धमेतत् । कलावपि येषां कुले देशेऽनुकल्पत्वेन सापिण्ड्यसंकोचः परंपरया समागतः तेषां तादृशसंकोचेन विवाहे न दोषः । अस्ति च भार्यात्वोत्पत्तिः । अन्येषां तैः सह व्यवहारे नैव दोषः । स्वयं तु कुलदेशविरुद्धसापिण्ड्यसंकोचेन विवाहे भवत्येव दोषः । न च भार्यात्वोत्पत्तिः । दृश्यन्ते हि स्वयं सापिण्ड्यसंकोचेन विवाहमकुर्वन्तः अपि तादृशसंकोचेनासङ्गजातविवाहेभ्यः कुलेभ्यः कन्याः स्वीकुर्वन्तस्तत्कुलीनाम् आद्यादौ भोजयन्तश्च बहवः शिष्टाः । अत एव मातुलकन्योद्वाहिनां हेमाद्र्यादौ आद्यानिषेधोपि स्वकुलदेशपरंपरयानामत-सापिण्ड्यसंकोचेन कृतविवाहविषय एवेति बोध्यम् । संस्कारकौस्तुभ p. 620.

1100. पितृपत्न्यः सर्वा मातरस्तद्भ्रातरो मातुलास्तद्भगिन्यो मातृस्वसारस्तदुहितरश्च भगिन्यस्तदपत्यानि भागिन्यानि । अन्यथा संस्कारारिणः स्युः । सुमन्तु. There are various readings in this passage in all works. *स्मृतिच.* I. p. 70 and *परा. मा.* I. 2. p. 64 also quote it. Vide note 1091 where सुमन्तु is somewhat differently quoted by हरदत्त.

latter are one's sister's children; otherwise there would be *samkara* (confusion)'. Two interpretations are placed on this, one view (and that is held by most) is that this lays down *sāṇḍya* only with the persons specifically mentioned,¹¹⁰¹ while another view (this is held by the Sam. Pr.) is that there is *sāṇḍya* for four generations from the father of one's step-mother. According to the first view a man cannot marry the daughter or grand-daughter of his step-mother's brother or sister, but his own daughter can marry the son of his step-mother's brother; while according to the second view the latter marriage also would contravene the rule about this extension (*atideśa*) of *sāṇḍya*.

Marriages with certain girls were forbidden by certain writers on the ground of what is called '*viruddhasambandha*', although there is no question of *saṇḍa* relationship in such cases. The *Gṛhya-pariśiṣṭa*¹¹⁰² (quoted in the *Nirpayasindhu* p. 289) prescribes 'one should marry a girl with whom there is no *viruddhasambandha*, e.g. the daughter of one's wife's sister or the sister of one's paternal uncle's wife (these should not be married). *Viruddhasambandha* (incompatible relation) occurs where the standing of the proposed bridegroom and the bride would resemble that of father or mother to the other (or of brother and sister). In modern times such marriages take place as a matter of course and no court would declare them to be invalid. Vide I. L. R. 20 Mad. 283 and I. L. R. 43 Mad. 830 where marriage with one's wife's sister's daughter was held to be valid, among *brāhmapas* as well as *śūdras* in the Telugu and Tamil districts, relying on Mandlik's Hindu Law pp. 484-485 and other authorities. In *Ramchandra v. Gopal* 32 Bom. 619 at pp. 630-631 the court approves of the decision in 20 Mad. 283 and holds that the dicta as to *viruddha-sambandha* are only recommendatory.

1101. अत्र यावद्वचनं वाचनिकमिति न्यायेन परिगणितेष्वेव सापिण्ड्यं न तु सप्तमादिपर्यन्तमिति भट्टचरणप्रभृतयो बहवः । सं. कौ. p. 621. For the maxim यावद्वचनं वाचनिकं vide Śābara's भाष्य p. 1324 (on जै. V. 3. 12) 'यावद्वचनं वाचनिकं न सद्गुणसुपसंक्रामति' and p. 1339 (on जै. V. 4. 11) 'याव निकं तत्र न न्यायः क्रमते'.

1102. वरो अविरोद्धसंबन्धासुपपच्छेत् । दम्पत्योर्मिथः पितृमातृसाम्ये विरोद्धः संबन्धः । यथा भार्यास्वसृदुहिता पितृव्यपत्नीस्वसा चेति परिशिष्टोक्तेः (आश्वलायन-गृह्यपरिशिष्ट 22) । निर्णयसिन्धुः । बौधायनः । मातुः सपत्न्या भगिनीं तत्सुतां च विवर्जयेत् । पितृव्यपत्नीभगिनीं तत्सुतां च विवर्जयेत् । धर्मसिन्धु p. 231; 'पितृमातृसाम्ये इत्युपलक्षणम् । तेन भ्रातृभगिनीसाम्ये स्वभ्रातृभ्रातृद्विजाभ्येपि नोद्वाहः । तद्यथा पितृव्यपत्नीस्वसृः सुता भगिनीसमा भवति । सं. प्र. p. 725.

About the sapinda relationship of the adopted son as regards marriage, āsauca and śrāddha a good deal is said in many works such as Sam. K. (pp. 182-186), Nirṇayasindhu (pp. 290-291), the Vyavahāramayūkha, the Sam. Pr. (pp. 688-694), Sam. R. M. (pp. 453-456). Sāpindya for āsauca and śrāddha will be dealt with later on. As to sāpindya for marriage in the case of adoption there is great divergence of views. The Sam. Pr. (p. 690) says that the son given in adoption has sāpindya for seven generations with his genitive father and for three generations with the adoptive father (pp. 693-694).¹¹⁰³ The Sam. K. appears to hold, after quoting several views, that if the upanayana of the adopted boy was performed in the family of birth, then he has sāpindya with the genitive family for seven generations. But if the ceremonies from jātakarma to upanayana are performed in the adoptive family then he has sāpindya in the adoptive family for seven generations, but only for five generations if only upanayana is performed in the family of adoption. The Nirṇayasindhu gives its own view that there is sāpindya in both families for seven generations. The Vyavahāramayūkha holds (following Gautama IV. 3) that in the case of *kevala dattaka* (the ordinary adopted son) sapinda relationship extends to seven degrees in the adoptive father's family and five degrees in the adoptive mother's family.¹¹⁰⁴ The Dharma-sindhu follows the Sam. K. generally but it makes one significant remark. It says that several writers hold that in the case of dattaka, sāpindya is to be observed for a lesser number of degrees (than seven or five) in both families.¹¹⁰⁵ The Sam. R. M. (p. 454) says that the limits of sāpindya spoken of as applying to an adopted person extend to his children also.¹¹⁰⁶ As the limits of sāpindya for marriage are very much narrowed down when marriage with one's maternal uncle's daughter or one's niece is allowed, on the other hand certain communities extend such limits too much. The Deśastha brāhmanas of the Mādhyandina śākhā in the Deccan do not

1103. तस्मादेषा दत्तकसपिण्डता त्रिपौरुषीति सिद्धम् । यद्यपि निर्वाप्य-
पिण्डान्वयेन सापिण्ड्यं प्राङ्निरस्तं तथाप्यगत्या दत्तकस्य प्रतिग्रहीत्रा सह तदेवाश्रयणीयम् ।
अविच्छिन्नशिष्टाचारादुरोधत् । सं. प्र. pp. 693-694.

1104. अत्र च केवलदत्तकस्य पालकपितृकुले साप्तपौरुषं मातृकुले च पाञ्चपौरुषं
सापिण्ड्यम् । व्यवहारमयुख (p. 119, my edition).

1105. केचित्तु दत्तकप्रवेशे कुलद्वयेपि सर्वथा न्यूनमेव सापिण्ड्यमित्याहुः । धर्मसिन्धु
p. 161.

1106. यादृशस्य दत्तकस्य यथा सापिण्ड्यमुक्तं तत्संततरेपि तथैव तद् बोध्यम् ।
संस्काररत्नमाला p. 454.

marry a girl whose father's gotra is the same as the gotra of the bridegroom's maternal grandfather. Manu III. 5 lays down 'that girl who is not a sapinda of the mother (of the bridegroom) and who is not a sagotra of the father (of the bridegroom) is commended in the case of twice-born classes'. Many commentators and digests like Kullūka, the Madana-pārijāta (p. 132), the Dipakalikā, the Udvāhatattva (p. 107) understand the word asagotra (in Manu III. 5) after 'mātuḥ' also, and thus forbid marriage with a girl whose gotra is the same as that of one's mother (i. e. of one's maternal grandfather). Medhātithi¹¹⁰⁷ on Manu III. 5 quotes a text of Vasiṣṭha which prescribes the penance of cāndrāyana for marrying a girl who has the same gotra as the bridegroom's mother (i. e. his mother's father) and abandonment of her. Haradatta on Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 16 quotes a similar verse from Śātātapa. Kullūka, the Sm. C. (I. p. 69), Haradatta on Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 11. 16, the Gr. R. (p. 10), Udvāhatattva p. 107 and other digests quote a verse of Vyāsa 'some do not desire for marriage a girl who has the same gotra as one's mother; but one may marry without question (or fear) a girl when her birth and name (as connected with one's mother's original gotra) are unknown'. A woman on marriage loses her original gotra and passes over into the gotra of her husband; so the words 'sagotra' of the mother simply mean 'having the same gotra as one's mother once had in her maiden state'. The Sm. C. (I. p. 69) takes this verse to refer only to a woman who was made an appointed daughter (putrikā) by her father. Halāyudha also held the same view. But other writers do not approve of this (vide the Gr. R., p. 10). The Nirṇayasindhu¹¹⁰⁸ (III. pūrvārdha p. 302) forbids marriage with a girl who is sagotra of one's mother, but the Saṃ. K. (p. 693) and the Dharmasindhu both say, after quoting a text of Satyaśadha, that this restriction applies only to those who study the Mādhyandina śākhā.

1107. परिणीय सगोत्रां तु समानप्रवरां तथा । कृत्वा तस्याः समुत्तर्गं द्विजश्चान्द्रायणं चरेत् ॥ मातुलस्य सुतां चैव मातुगोत्रां तथैव च । वसिष्ठ quoted in मेधाः. Manu III. 5 presents various readings, viz. 'दारकर्मणि मैथुने', 'दारकर्मणि मैथुनी', 'दारकर्मण्यमैथुने'. Vide मेधाः thereon.

1108. ब्राह्मद्विवाहोदासुतानां सर्वेषां मातुगोत्रत्वं न वज्र्यम्, किं तु माध्यन्दिनीयानामेव । मातुगोत्रं माध्यन्दिनीयानामिति सत्याषाढोक्तेः । सं. कौ. p. 693; 'इदं मातुगोत्रवर्जनं माध्यन्दिनीयानामेव मातुगोत्रं माध्यन्दिनीयानामपुत्रायाम्नेति सत्याषाढोक्तेरिति कश्चित्तिर्मुलम् ।' निर्णयसिन्धु III, पूर्वार्ध p. 302.

The Bengal school represented by the *Dāyabhāga* and *Raghunandana* differ from the *Mitākṣarā* in the interpretation of the word 'sapinda'. In this system the word 'pinda' is taken to mean 'the ball of rice' that is offered in śrāddhas to deceased ancestors &c. (while under the *Mit.* interpretation 'pinda' means body or particles of body). *Sapinda* means 'one who is connected with another through oblations of food'. The author of the *Dāyabhāga* propounds his theory with reference to inheritance and he himself says that with reference to *āśauca*¹¹⁰⁹ *sapinda* relationship is to be differently understood. Further *Jimūtavāhana* does not set forth his theory of *sapinda* relationship with reference to marriage. His theory is that in matters of inheritance the guiding principle is the spiritual benefit (*upakarakatva*) conferred on the deceased through oblations of food, and he relies on *Manu* (IX. 106) for this proposition. For his *sapinda* theory he principally relies on two passages, *Baud.*¹¹¹⁰ Dh. S. I. 5. 113-115 and *Manu* IX. 186-187. *Baudhāyana's* words are 'the paternal great-grand-father, the paternal grandfather, the father, the man himself, his full brothers, his son, grandson and son's son from a woman of the same varṇa: all these participating in undivided *dāya* (heritage) are called *sapindas*. Those who participate in divided *dāya* are called *sakulyas*. Thus issue of the body existing, wealth goes to them; on failure of *sapindas*, the *sakulyas*'. The text of *Manu* (IX. 186-187) is 'To three, libations of water must be given; towards three *pinda* proceeds; the fourth is the giver of these (of water and *pindas*), there is no fifth properly (concerned in this). Whoever is the nearest among *sapindas*, his becomes the wealth of him (who dies). After him the *sakulya* becomes (the heir) &c'. *Jimūtavāhana's* explanation of this text is as follows: 'A man when living offers *pindas* to his three male ancestors; but when he himself dies, his son performs

1109. तथोपकारकत्वेनैव धनसंबन्धं मनुष्याह । दायभाग chap. 11. sec. 32; इदं च सपिण्डत्वं सकुल्यत्वं च दायग्रहणार्थमुक्तम् । अशौचाद्यर्थं तु पिण्डलेपमुज्जामपि तद्वत्पिण्डलेपभोक्तृत्वेन सपिण्डत्वं मार्कण्डेयपुराणे निर्दिष्टं यथा-पिण्डलेपमुज्जस्थान्ये पितामह-पितामहात् । पशुत्युक्तास्त्रयस्तेषां यजमानश्च सप्तमः । इत्येवं सुनिभिः योक्तः संबन्धः साप्तपौरुष इति । अशौचचक्र इत्यर्थः । दायभाग chap. 11 sections 39-41 (*Jivānanda's* ed.). The passage occurs in *मार्कण्डेयपुराण* 28. 3-4 and also in *ब्रह्मपुराण* 112.17-18.

1110. प्रपितामहः पितामहः पिता स्वयं सोढर्यां भ्रातरः सवर्णायाः पुत्रः पौत्रः प्रपौत्रः । एतान्विभक्तदायादाव सपिण्डानाचक्षते । विभक्तदायादान्तकुलयाचक्षते । सस्त्वङ्गजेषु तदानीं ह्यर्थो भवति । सपिण्डाभावे सकुल्यः । बौ. ध. सू. I. 5. 113-115 quoted in *दायभाग* XI. 37. The text printed in the *Ānān.* ed. is slightly different.

the *sapinḍikaraṇa*¹¹¹¹ śrāddha for him, he is made one with the pitṛs and he then begins to participate along with his father and grandfather in the three pinḍas offered by his son to the latter's three ancestors. Thus those to whom he offers pinḍas and those who offer pinḍas to him are called, since they share in undivided oblations, *avibhaktadāyūda sapinḍas*. Several objections can be raised against the theory of Jimūtavāhana. In the first place he assigns the meaning of pinḍa to the word dāya in Baudhāyana's passage for which there is no warrant. Baudhāyana really means that those enumerated by him are called sapinḍas who take undivided wealth i. e. who constitute an undivided family. In the next place on his interpretation the word sapinḍa has to be interpreted in entirely different ways for āśauca and marriage. Besides he himself is not sure of his ground, since he says that although learned men may not approve of his theory that spiritual benefit is the guiding principle in taking property by inheritance they must admit that the order of heirs as stated by him relying on Manu IX. 186-187 is the proper one.¹¹¹²

The following table illustrates the sapinḍas expressly so stated by the Dāyabhāga where P stands for the *propositus*, S for son and F for father :

GGF12	—	S13	—	S14	—	S15
GF8	—	S9	—	S10	—	S11
F	—	S5	—	S6	—	S7
(4)						
P	—	S1	—	S2	—	S3

1111. In the *Sapinḍikaraṇa* rite four pinḍas are made, one for the deceased person whose *sapinḍikaraṇa* is to be effected and three for that person's three paternal ancestors and the pinḍas are mixed up, thereby indicating that from being a mere preta (one belonging to the region of the unredeemed dead) he becomes one of the pitṛs and dwells in pitṛloka. अस्वार्थः । पित्रादिपिण्डत्रये सपिण्डनेन भोक्तृत्वात् पुत्रादिभिश्च त्रिभिः तत्पिण्डस्यैव दानात् यश्च जीवन् यत्पिण्डदाता स मृतः सन् सपिण्डनात् तत्पिण्डभोक्ता एवं च सति मध्यस्थितः पुरुषः पूर्वैर्जीवन् पिण्डदाता स मृतः तत्पिण्डभोक्ता च परेषां जीवतां पिण्डसंप्रदानभूत आसीत् मृतैश्च तैः सह दौहित्रादिद्वेषापिण्डभोक्ता अतो येषामयं पिण्डदाता ये वास्य पिण्डदातारः ते अविभक्तपिण्डरूपं दायमदन्तीत्यविभक्तदायादाः सपिण्डाः । दायभाग chap. XI. 1. para 38.

1112. अत्रापरितोषो विदुषां वाचनिक एवायमर्थः, तथापि यथोक्त एव वचनयोरर्थो ग्राह्य इत्यस्तु किं विस्तरेण । दायभाग XI. 6. para 38.

Śrīkrṣṇa, a commentator of the Dāyabhāga and author of Dāyakramasaṅgraha, and Raghunandana, author of Smṛtitattva, and others elaborate these rules. The Full Bench of the Calcutta High Court in *Guru Govind Shaha Mandal* ¹¹¹³ v. *Anand Lal Ghose Mazumdar* gives an elaborate statement of the several sapīṇḍas. But as those rules have reference only to succession, they are passed over here. Raghunandana in his work on marriage called *Udvāhatattva* ¹¹¹⁴ quotes the famous verse of the Matsyapurāṇa, 'the fourth and (two beyond him) among ascendants are partakers of *lepa* (the leavings of the boiled rice that become attached to the hand of him who offers pīṇḍas), the father and the rest (i. e. two more beyond him) are partakers of the pīṇḍa; he who offers the pīṇḍa to them is the seventh; sāpīṇḍya extends to seven generations' and refers the readers to his *Sūddhitattva* for elucidation. Raghunandana does not give any definition of sapīṇḍas for marriage, but discusses the conflict about the several texts such as '7th on the father's side and 5th on the mother's side'. He expressly says (p. 110 of *Udvāhatattva*) that the words 'who is not a sapīṇḍa of one's mother' are still applicable even if several females intervene between the common ancestor and the girl proposed to be married. He then adds a special rule that descendants of what are called pitṛbandhus and mātṛbandhus also are forbidden if they are within 7 degrees and 5 degrees respectively from these bandhus. The pitṛbandhus ¹¹¹⁵ of a person are his paternal grand-father's sister's sons, his paternal grandmother's sister's sons and his father's maternal uncle's sons; while mātṛbandhus are a person's mother's father's sister's sons, mother's mother's sister's sons, mother's maternal uncle's sons. These two latter may be illustrated by two diagrams.

1113. 5 Bengal Law Reports p. 15.

1114. Vide pp. 117-118 of the उद्वाहतत्त्व for a summary of the rules about सापिण्ड्यनिवृत्ति; about पितृबन्धु and मातृबन्धु he says 'एवं पितृबन्धुप्रभृति-संबन्धघटकानां सप्तानां संततिः सप्तमीपर्यन्ता नोद्वाह्या । एवं मातृबन्धुप्रभृतिसंबन्ध-घटकानां पञ्चानां संततिः पञ्चमीपर्यन्ता नोद्वाह्या । एवं च मनुवचने यद्दसापिण्डेति पृथगुक्तं तत्सपिण्डकन्यापरंपराजाताया अपि पञ्चमीसप्तमीपर्यन्ताया निषेधार्थम् । उद्वाह-तत्त्व p. 110.

1115. पितुः पितृव्यसुः पुत्राः पितृमार्तुःपुत्रसुः सुताः । पितृमार्तुलपुत्राश्च विज्ञेयाः पितृ-बान्धवाः ॥ मातुः पितृव्यसुः पुत्रा मातृमार्तुःपुत्रसुः सुताः । मातृमार्तुलपुत्राश्च विज्ञेया मातृ-बान्धवाः ॥ वृद्धशातातप according to मदनपारिजात p. 674 and बौधायन according to परा. मा.

No. I.

Paternal line

7
6
5
4
3Father's paternal
aunt

S (1)

(2) Grandfather = Grandmother

(1) father

A (bridegroom)

Father's maternal line

7
6
5
4
3father's
maternal-
grand-fatherfather's
maternal
uncle

S (3)

grand
mother's
sister

S (2)

N. B.—Here S1, S2 and S3 are the three pitrbandhus of A, the bridegroom, and they are the starting points for calculating prohibited degrees among paternal cognates. In the ascending line only the descendants of the common ancestors are excluded. For example, S1 is a pitrbandhu and his descendants up to 7 degrees are excluded; but S1's father is not a bandhu of the bridegroom; therefore S1's father's sister may be married by the bridegroom. Under this rule the 6th descendant (a girl) of S1 will be ineligible for marriage with A: but she will be 9th from A's grandfather's father who is the common ancestor. So it will be seen that this goes far beyond the limits of sāpindya generally prescribed and there is no valid reason assigned for this.

No. II.

Mother's paternal line

5
4
3
2maternal great
grand-fathermother's
paternal
aunt

S1

(1) maternal = maternal
grand-father grand-mother

mother

A (bridegroom).

Mother's maternal line

5
4
3mother's maternal
grandfathermother's
mother's
sister

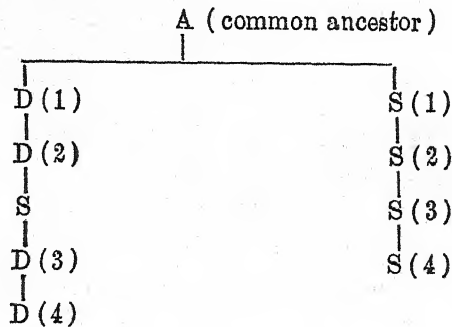
S2

mother's
mother's
brother

S3

N. B.—Here S1, S2 and S3 are mātṛbandhus of the bridegroom. The maternal great-grandfather is the starting point in calculating prohibited degrees in the mother's paternal line. In the mother's maternal line the starting points are S2 and S3. In the ascending lines of the mātṛbandhus the descendants of only the common ancestor are excluded. For example, the girl descended from S3's maternal ancestors may be married by the bridegroom and so also a girl descended from the paternal ancestor of S2 or S1.

Another rule propounded by Raghunandana is that even within prohibited degrees a valid marriage may be contracted if three gotras intervene. In the case of girls descended from pitṛbandhus and mātṛbandhus the computation of gotra must be made from them. For want of space it is not thought advisable to illustrate this by citing several examples. But one example is given to illustrate this rule.



Here according to the Bengal school S (4) can marry D (4) because three gotras intervene between her and the common ancestor, although S4 is only 5th in descent from the common ancestor; for according to the Bengal school it is not necessary that both the bridegroom and the bride be beyond the limits of sapindaśhip, but only the bride need be so; while according to many writers of the Mitākṣarā school both must be beyond the limits of sapindaśhip from the common ancestor.¹¹¹⁶

1116. The निर्णयसिन्धु summarizes the views of Gauda writers: अत्र बन्धुभ्य इति पञ्चमीनिर्देशात् पितुःपितृष्वस्यपुत्रात्सप्तमी मातुःपितृष्वस्यपुत्राच्च पञ्चमीमपि त्यजेत् । एवमन्यबन्धुषु ज्ञेयम् । तत्रापि त्रिगोत्रात्ययेऽर्वांगपि विवाहं कुर्यात् वक्ष्यमाणवचनात् । त्रिगोत्रगणना च मातामहगोत्रपिक्षया न तु स्वापेक्षया अन्यथा पितुः पितामहदुहितुर्द्विहित्रीपुत्री परिणया स्यात् । यथा मातामहगोत्रापिक्षया तु त्रिगोत्रान्तर्गतेन विवाहमसङ्ग इति संवन्धतत्त्वादयो गौडग्रन्थाः । pp. 283-284, where a passage of बृहन्मनु is quoted

The Dāyabhāga does not rely upon any Vedic passages for its theory of sapinda relationship. The Mit. (on Yāj. I. 52) relies upon three Vedic passages only in propounding the theory of sapinda relationship viz. 'indeed the man himself is born from himself (as son, Ait. Br. 33. 1)'; 'thou art born again (or reproduced) in the offspring' (Tai. Br. I. 5. 5) and 'this body is made of six kośas (sheaths); three are derived from the father, three from the mother; bones, muscles and marrow from the mother' (Garbhopeniṣad). These passages at the most say that particles of the bodies of the parents continue in their offspring; but they do not say anything about the meaning of sapinda or the limits of the sapinda relationship for marriage or inheritance. Even in the Rg. the words jñāti and bandhu which occur in the dharmasūtras (e. g. Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 10. 3, I. 5. 11 17. and Gaut. II. 44, IV. 3 and 5, VI. 3) frequently occur (vide Rg. VII. 55. 5 and X. 85. 28 for jñāti and Rg. I. 113. 2, V. 73. 4, VII. 72. 2, VII. 67. 9 for bandhu). All that we can say is that both meanings of sapinda were implicit in the word pinda from the earliest times and that the sūtra writers were conscious of both meanings.

As to the grounds on which marriages between near sapindas were prohibited various theories have been advanced by anthropologists. Vide Westermarck in his 'History of Human marriage' (ed. of 1921, vol. II. pp. 71-81) and Rivers on 'Marriage of cousins in India' in J. R. A. S. for 1907 pp. 611-640. Some think that the prohibition was due to the abhorrence which men in the primitive times felt for incest. To me it appears more probable that in India at least the prohibition was due to two causes; firstly, the observed fact that, if near relatives marry, their defects are transmitted with aggravation to their offspring and secondly the fear that, if marriages between near relatives by blood were allowed, there may be clandestine love affairs and consequent loss of morals and it would be difficult to secure husbands for girls who would

(Continued from last page)

from शूलपाणि's संबन्धविवेक 'शूलपाणिर्प्याह । पञ्चमात्सम्याच्चावगमि त्रिगोत्रान्तरिता विवाहा । असंबन्धा भवेन्मातुः पिण्डेनैवोदकेन वा । सा विवाहा द्विजातीनां त्रिगोत्रान्तरिता च येति बृहन्मन्त्रकैः ।' The निर्णयसिन्धु notes that southern writers (dāksipātya) do not subscribe to this view about three gotras intervening being an exception to sapaṇḍya in marriage. The संस्कारप्रकाश p. 710 also notes the view of Śūlapāṇi about त्रिगोत्रान्तरिता which means 'मूलपुरुषगोत्राच्चतुर्थ-गोत्रोत्पत्तेरिति'.

be living under the same roof with several near or distant cousins.

The Par. M. I. part 2, p. 59 expressly says that only such a girl who is not a *sapiṇḍa* of the bridegroom within the prohibited degrees on any of the two theories of *sāpiṇḍya* (viz. by connection with particles of the body or with the balls of rice) is eligible for marriage.

The question what support Vedic Literature lends to the two interpretations of the word *sapiṇḍa* may now be briefly discussed here.

The word *piṇḍa* occurs ¹¹¹⁷ in the Rgveda (I. 162. 19) and the Tai. S. IV. 6. 9. 3 where it seems to mean 'a part of the body of the sacrificial animal thrown into fire as an offering'. Here it is clear that the word *piṇḍa* is not used in the sense of 'ball of rice'. But in the Tai. S. II. 3. 8. 2 and in the Śat. Br. II. 4. 2. 24 the word *piṇḍa* means 'ball of rice' offered to the Manes. The Nirukta III. 4 and 5 twice employs the words '*piṇḍadānāya*' (for offering balls of rice). But the word *sapiṇḍa* hardly ever occurs in the Vedic literature and we have no means of judging in what sense it was used in the Vedic literature. In the dharmaśāstras the word *sapiṇḍa* occurs frequently and the dharmaśāstras show a close connection between offering *piṇḍa* and the taking of inheritance (vide Gaut. 14. 13, 28. 21, Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 14. 2, Vasiṣṭha IV. 16-18, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 15. 40).

It was shown above (pp. 436-37) that some sages prohibit marriage with a *sagotra* girl while others prohibit it with a *sapravara* girl. A number of sages and works like Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 9, Yāj. I. 53, Nārada (*striPuṁsa*, verse 7) require that the girl to be married must not be a *sagotra* nor a *sapravara*. Therefore it is necessary to understand the meaning of *gotra* and *pravara*. A detailed treatment of the topics of *gotra* and *pravara* would extend to a large treatise. Only a few salient points can be gone into here. The subject of *gotra* and *pravara* in the Vedic Literature has been treated at length by me in the J. B. B. R. A. S. (New series vol. II. for 1935). Only the conclusions there drawn will be set out here.

1117. एकस्त्वन्दुरश्वस्या विशस्ता द्वा यन्तारा भवतस्तथ ऋतुः । या ते गात्राणामृतथा कुणोमि ताता पिण्डानां म जुहोम्यग्नी ॥ ऋ. I. 162. 19 = तै. सं. IV. 6. 9. 3. The word *sagotra* is equal to *samāna-gotra* as stated by Pāṇini VI. 3.85 and *sapiṇḍa* and *sapravara* are similarly formed.

The word gotra in the Rg. means 'cow-stable' or 'herd of cows' in a few passages (I. 51. 3, II. 17. 1, III. 39. 4, III. 43. 7, IX. 86. 23, X. 48. 2, X. 120. 8). By a natural metaphor 'gotra' was applied to a cloud (in which waters are pent up as cows in a cow-stable) or to a cloud demon and also to a mountain range or peak which conceals water-yielding clouds. Vide Rg. II. 23. 3 (where Brhaspati's car is styled 'gotrabhid'), Rg. X. 103. 7 (= Tai. S. IV. 6. 4. 2, Atharva-veda V. 2. 8. and Vāj. S. 17. 39), Rg. VI. 17. 2, X. 103. 6. In some of these verses it is possible to take 'gotra' in the sense of 'fort'. In some cases 'gotra' probably means only "assemblage" (samūha) e. g. Rg. II. 23. 18, VI. 65. 5. From this last sense of 'assemblage' the transition to the meaning of 'a group of persons' is both easy and quick. There is no positive instance of the word 'gotra' being unchallengeably used in the sense 'descendants of a common patriarchal ancestor' in the Rgveda; but the conception underlying the idea of gotra was, it is plain, quite familiar even in the age of the Rgveda. In the Atharvaveda V. 21. 3¹¹¹⁸ the word 'viśvagotryaḥ' (belonging to all families) occurs. Here the word 'gotra' clearly means 'a group of men connected together' (by blood). The Kauśika sūtra IV. 2 quotes a mantra in which gotra undoubtedly means 'a group of persons'.

Several passages of the Tai. S. show that descendants of great sages were called after those sages. In Tai. S. I. 8. 18. 1 it is said 'the Hotṛ is a Bhārgava' (descendant of Bhṛgu). The commentator explains that this is so only in the Rājasūya. It is quite possible that in those days descent was traced through teacher and pupil as well as through father and son. But there being a very few occupations only it is most probable that the son generally learnt from his father the lore of the latter. In Tai. S. VII. 1. 9. 1 we read 'therefore one does not find (or know) two Jāmadagniyas (in succession) who are poor (or grey-haired)'. From this it is clear that in the times of the Tai. S. Jamadagni was regarded as a very ancient sage, that several generations of Jamadagni's descendants had passed away by that time, that they were all known as Jāmadagnyas (or-gnias) and that no two descendants were found to be poor (or grey-haired) in succession.

1118. वानस्पत्यः संभृत उक्षियाभिर्विश्वगोऽयः । प्रत्रासममित्रेभ्यो वदात्प्येनाभि-
चारितः ॥ अथर्ववेद V. 21. 3.

In numerous mantras of the R̥gveda the descendants of well-known sages are denoted by the plural form of the names of those sages. In R̥g. X. 66. 14 we read 'the Vasiṣṭhas have raised their voices like their father'. In R̥g. VI. 35. 5 the Bharadvājas are referred to as Āṅgīrasas. According to Āśv. Śrauta-sūtra Bharadvāja is a gotra falling under the Āṅgirogaṇa. In the Brāhmaṇa Literature there are ample indications that priestly families had come to be formed into several groups named after their (real or supposed) founders and that such families differed in details of worship according to the group they belonged to. The Tai. Br. (I. 1. 4) prescribes that the consecration (*ādihāna*) of the sacred Vedic fires is to be performed for Bhṛgu or Āṅgīrasas with the mantra 'bhṛgūṇām (or āṅgīrasām) tvādevānām vratapate vratenā-dadhāmi,' that for other brāhmaṇas with the words 'ādityānām tvā devānām vratapate' &c. The Tai. Br. II. 2. 3 speaks of the 'Āṅgīrasī prajā' (people of the Āṅgīras group). The Tāṇḍya Brāhmaṇa¹¹¹⁹ prescribes that the *camasa* (cup) made of udumbara was to be given as *dakṣiṇā* to a sagotra brāhmaṇa. The Kauṣītaki Br.¹¹²⁰ (25. 15) says that one who has performed the Viśvajit sacrifice (in which everything that the sacrificer owned was gifted away) should stay for a year with a brāhmaṇa of the same gotra. The Ait. Br. (30. 7) contains the story of Aitāsa and his son Abhyagni and it is stated that the Aitāśāyanas Abhyagnis are the most sinful of the Aurvas. In the Kauṣītaki Br. where the same story occurs it is said that the Aitāśāyanas became lowest among Bhṛgus, as they were cursed by their father. According to Baudhāyanaśrauta-sūtra the Aitāśāyanas are a sub-section of Bhṛgugaṇa. Śunaḥśepa, when he was accepted as a son by Viśvāmitra, came to be called Devarāta and the Ait. Br. (33. 5) says that the Kāpileyas and Bābhavas were affiliated to Devarāta. According to Baud. śrauta-sūtra Devarāta and Bābhru are sub-sections of Viśvāmitra gotra. Śunaḥśepa is said to have been an Āṅgīrasa by birth (Ait. Br. 33. 5).¹¹²¹ So this makes it clear that gotra relationship was by birth in the times of the Ait. Br. (and not from teacher to pupil). In the Upaniṣads the sages when expounding the knowledge of *brahma*

1119. सगोत्राय ब्रह्मणे देयः सोमपीथस्याविदोहाय । ताण्ड्य. 18. 2. 12.

1120. ब्राह्मणे समानगोत्रे वसेद्यत्समाने गोत्रेऽन्नाद्यं तस्योपास्यै संवत्सरं चरेदयः संवेद्य । कौषीतकि ब्रा. 25. 15.

1121. आङ्गिरसो जन्मनास्वाजीगर्तिः श्रुतः कविः । ऋषे पौतामहासन्तोर्मापगाः पुनरेहि माम् ॥ ऐ. ब्रा.

addressed their pupils by the gotra names e. g. by the Bhāradvāja, Gārgya, Āśvalāyana, Bhārgava and Kātyāyana gotras in Praśna I. 1, Vaiyāghrapadya and Gautama in Chāndogya V. 14. 1 and V. 16. 1; Gautama and Bharadvāja, Viśvāmitra and Jamadagni, Vasiṣṭha and Kaśyapa in Br. Up. II. 2. 4. All this shows that the system of gotras with several sub-sections was well established in the times of the Brāhmaṇas and the ancient Upaniṣads. But the gotras are in these works referred to in connection with sacrifices or education. There is hardly any distinct reference in these to gotra or sagotra in relation to marriage. In the Lāṭyāyana-śrauta-sūtra ¹¹²² VIII. 2. 8 and 10 it is prescribed that one who has given away everything in the Viśvajit sacrifice should stay three nights with niṣādas and may partake of their jungle diet and then again three nights with 'jana' and then the sūtra gives several views about the meaning of 'jana' one of which, that of Dhānañjapya, is that 'jana' means a person with whom (i. e. with whose daughter) marriage is possible while one who is sagotra is called 'samāna-jana'. This clearly proves that long before the Lāṭyāyana-śrautasūtra marriage with a sagotra had been forbidden. Besides several of the grhya and dharma sūtras prohibit marriage with a sagotra girl. It is impossible to hold that this was a new conception that arose only about the time of these sūtras. Therefore, it must be supposed that prohibition as to sameness of gotra in marriage had its origin long before the period of the sūtras in the times of the Brāhmaṇa works (if not earlier).

Gotra was of supreme importance in several fundamental matters and it largely entered into several practices of the ancient Aryans. A few examples may be given here. (1) In marriage sagotra girls were forbidden, vide above pp. 436-37. In the Lājāhoma at marriage two offerings were to be made by all except Jāmadagnyas, who had to make three (Āśv. gr. I. 7. 8-9).

(2) In matters of inheritance the wealth of one dying without issue went to his near sagotras (Gaut. 28. 19).

(3) In śrāddha the brāhmaṇas to be invited should not belong as far as possible to the same gotra as the person inviting (Āp. Dh. S. II. 7. 17. 4, Gaut. 15. 20).

1122. विवाहो जनः सगोत्रः समानजन इति धानंजप्यः । लाट्यायनश्रौत
VIII. 2. 11.

(4) In *pārvaṇa sthālīpāka* and other *pākayajñas*, all were to cut off oblations from the middle and fore-half of the *havis*, but for Jāmadagnyas (who are *pañcāvattins*) they were to be cut off from the middle, the fore-part and the hind part (*vide* -Āśv. gr. I. 10. 18-19).¹¹²³

(5) In offering water to a *preta* (a person recently dead) his gotra and name were to be repeated (Āśv. gr. IV. 4. 10).

(6) In the *caula* ceremony tufts of hair were to be left in accordance with the gotra and practice of the family (Khādīra gr. II. 3. 30).

(7) At the time of performing one's daily *samdhya* prayer, one has to repeat even in modern times one's gotra and *pravara*, the *Vedaśākhā* and *sūtra* which one studies.

As regards *śrauta* sacrifices a few interesting examples may be given. Jaimini establishes that *sattras* (sacrificial sessions extending over 12 days and more) could be performed only by *brāhmaṇas* and that among *brāhmaṇas* the *Bhrgus*, *Śunakas* and *Vasiṣṭhas* are not entitled to perform them (VI. 6. 24-26). Those of the *Atri*, *Vadhryaśva*, *Vasiṣṭha*, *Vaiśya* (*Vainya* ?), *Śaunaka*, *Kaṇva*, *Kaśyapa* and *Samkṛti* gotras took *Nārāsaṁsa* as the second *prayāja*, while others took *Tanūnapāt* as the second (*vide* Śabara on Jaimini VI. 6. 1).

The conception of *pravara* is closely interwoven with that of gotra from very ancient times. The two have to be studied together. ' *Pravara* ' literally means ' choosing ' or ' invoking ' (*prārthanā*).¹¹²⁴ As *Agni* was invoked to carry the offerings of a sacrificer to the gods by taking the names of the illustrious *ṛṣis* (his remote ancestors) who in former times had invoked *Agni*, the word *pravara* came to denote one or more illustrious *ṛṣis*, ancestors of a sacrificer. A synonym of *pravara* is *ārṣeya* or *ārṣa* (as in Yāj. I. 52). *Pravara* entered into several domestic ceremonies and practices according to the *gṛhya* and *dharma sūtras*. For example :

(1) a bride was to be chosen whose father's *pravara* was not the same as that of the bridegroom's father. *Vide* above p. 437.

1123. मध्यात्पूर्वार्धाच्च हविषोऽवद्यति । मध्यात्पूर्वार्धात्पश्चार्धादिति पञ्चावत्तिनाम् । आश्व. गृ. I. 10. 18-19.

1124. समानप्रवराः द्व्यार्षेयः प्रवरः इत्यादिषु प्रवरशब्दः प्रविश्यते इति कर्म-भ्युत्पन्न इति प्रवरमञ्जरीकारः । सं. प्र. प. 598.

(2) In upanayana the girdle (*mekhalā*) was to have one, three or five knots according to the number of ṛṣis constituting the boy's pravara (*vide Śān. gr. II. 2*).

(3) In *Caula* the tufts of hair to be left on the head depended on the number of sages constituting the pravara of the boy's family (*Āp. gr. 16. 6*).

The mass of material on gotra and pravara in the sūtras, the purāṇas and digests is so vast and so full of contradictions that it is almost an impossible task to reduce it to order and coherence. The learned author of the *Pravara-mañjarī* (which is the leading work on the subject) wrote in despair 'Here, in the parts of sūtras that have been quoted there is a great divergence in the order (of the names of pravaras) of the texts of the several sūtrakāras, this being specially so in the text of *Āśvalāyana* (śrauta)-sūtra. Thus, though divergence is clearly established, yet following the order of the texts of the majority of writers such as *Baudhāyana*, *Āpastamba* and *Kātyāyana* we shall declare (the rules) about marriage or no marriage'.¹¹²⁵

We have first to understand what gotra in the sūtras and digests means and how it is inter-related to pravara. Among the sūtras that treat of gotra and pravara the śrauta sūtras of *Āśvalāyana* (*Uttaraśatka VI, khaṇḍas 10-15*), *Āpastamba* (24th praśna) and *Baudhāyana* (*B. I. ed. vol. III pravaraḍhyāya* at end) are the most important. The *Pravaramañjarī* (p. 5) has a verse to the effect that *Baudhāyana's pravaraḍhyāya* is the best on the subject.

The *Śrautasūtra* of *Satyāśāḍha* *Hiraṇyakeśi* (21st praśna) has a section on this subject, which is the same as *Āpastambaśrauta* with a few omissions and variations. The *Baudhāyanaśrauta-sūtra* says¹¹²⁶ 'Viśvāmitra, Jamadagni, Bharadvāja, Gautama, Atri, Vasiṣṭha and Kaśyapa are the seven sages and Agastya is the eighth; the progeny of these eight sages is declared to be gotra'. These seven sages are probably derived from what is stated in the *Br. Up. II. 2. 3-4* (=Śat. Br.

1125. अत्रोदाहृतेषु सूत्रकाण्डेषु सूत्रकाराणां पाठक्रमव्यत्यासो महानस्ति विशेषतश्चा-
श्वलायनसूत्रपाठे । ... एवं भेदे सिद्धे सत्यपि बोधायनापस्तम्बकात्यायनादीनां बहूनां
पाठक्रमाहुसारेण विवाहाविवाहौ वक्ष्यामः । प्रवरमञ्जरी p. 72 (ed. by Chensalrao).

1126. विश्वामित्रो जमदग्निर्भरद्वाजोऽथ गौतमः । अत्रिर्वसिष्ठः कश्यप इत्येते सप्त
ऋषयः । तेषां सप्तर्षीनामगस्त्याष्टमानां यदुपत्यं तद्भोजसुच्यते । बौ. ओ. प्रवराध्याय 54; and
गोत्राणां तु सहस्राणि प्रयुतान्यर्द्धद्वानि च । ऊनपञ्चाशद्वैषां प्रवरा ऋषिदर्शनात् ॥

XIV. 5. 2. 6) where these very seven sages are enumerated as those intended in the śloka 'arvāg-bilāscamasa'¹¹²⁷ &c.' quoted there. The same work (Baud. śrauta) states that there are thousands, tens of thousands and *arbudas* (millions of millions) of gotras, but the pravaras are only 49. Besides the sūtra works, some purāṇas like the Matsya (chap. 195-202), the Vāyu (chap. 88 and 99, Anan. ed.), Skanda III. 2 (Dharmāranya kāṇḍa) contain elaborate enumerations of gotras and pravaras. The Mahābhārata sets out at length the subdivisions (such as Madhuchandas, Devarāta) of Viśvāmitragotra in Anuśāsanaparva 4. 49-59. Digests like the Smṛtyarthasāra (pp. 14-17), the Saṁ. Pr. (pp. 591-680), the Saṁ. K. (pp. 637-692), the Nirṇaya-sindhu, the Dharmasindhu, the Bālabhāṭṭi contain a vast material on this topic. There are also special works like the Pravaramaṇjarī on this topic. The general conception about gotra is that it denotes all persons who trace descent in an unbroken male line from a common male ancestor. When a person says 'I am Jamadagni-gotra' he means that he traces his descent from the ancient sage Jamadagni by unbroken male descent. As stated by Baud. cited above, from very ancient times these male founders were supposed to be eight. This enumeration of eight primary gotras seems to have been known to Pāṇini. Patañjali says 'there were eighty thousand sages who observed celibacy. The accepted opinion is that the spread of progeny was due to eight sages including Agastya. The offspring (apatya) of these eight are gotras and others than these are called *gotrāvayava*'.¹¹²⁸ Pāṇini

1127. Vide Nirukta XII. 38 for another interpretation of the verse अर्वाङ्गिलश्चमस &c. In the Nirukta 'the seven sages' are explained either as 'seven rays of the Sun' or as 'the seven indriyas'. The Br. Up. explains the 'seven sages' as the prāṇas (the two ears, eyes, the two holes of the nose and the tongue) and identifies them with the seven sages, Viśvāmitra and others. The Atharva-veda X. 8. 9 reads the verse as 'तिर्यङ्गिलश्चमस &c.'.

1128. अष्टाङ्गीतिः सहस्राणि ऊर्ध्वरेतसामृषीणां वधूदुस्तत्रागस्त्याष्टमैर्कौषिभिः प्रजनोऽभ्युपगतः । तत्रभवतां यदुपत्यं तानि गोत्राणि अतोऽन्ये गोत्रावयवाः । महाभाष्य vol. II. p. 233 on the sūtra गोत्रावयवात् (पा. IV. 1. 78). The आप. ध. सू. (II. 9. 23. 3-5) quotes passages from a purāṇa about two sorts of 80000 sages (one group desiring offspring and the other not so desiring). याज्ञ. III. 186-187, समापर्व 11. 54 contain somewhat similar verses. समापर्व 11. 54 is 'अष्टाङ्गीतिसहस्राणि ऋषीणामूर्ध्वरेतसाम् । प्रजावतां च पञ्चासदृषीणामपि पण्डितम् ।' The reference to fifty sages having progeny is probably to the pravara sages, just as Baud. speaks of 49 pravara groups.

defines gotra for grammatical purposes as 'apatyam pautra-prabhṛti gotram' (IV. 1. 162), which means 'the word *gotra* denotes (in my work on grammar) the progeny (of a sage) beginning with the son's son'. For example, the son of Garga would be called Gārgi, but the grandson would be called Gārgyaḥ and the plural Gargāḥ would denote all descendants of Garga (downwards from Garga's grand-son). But this definition is a technical one in grammar and is meant to indicate how derived (*taddhita*) words are to be formed by means of terminations. Even Pāṇini makes use of this technical sense only in the *apatyādhikāra*, but elsewhere in his work he uses the word gotra in the popular sense as comprehending all descendants of a common male ancestor. Vide the Kāśikā on Pāṇini II. 4. 63, IV. 2. 39 and IV. 3. 80. The Sam. Pr. (pp. 591-592) lucidly explains¹¹²⁹ this. That a man belongs to a particular gotra is known by him only from tradition, from his father and other elders or from people about him, just as he knows that he is a brāhmaṇa from the same source¹¹³⁰. Medhātithi on Manu III. 5. 194 has a very lucid and interesting discussion on this topic. His argument is: just as, though all persons are men, some are called brāhmaṇas, so among brāhmaṇas certain persons are known by immemorial usage (or convention) as belonging to certain gotras like Vasiṣṭha and the sūtra-kāras lay down that a certain gotra has certain pravaras; so the word gotra is applied to Vasiṣṭha and other sages by *rūḍhi* (by convention or long-standing usage). It cannot be supposed that a person called Parāśara was born at a certain time and then his descendants came to be called Parāśaras. In that case the Veda would not be *anūdi* (beginningless), as it is supposed to be, since it mentions Parāśara, Vasiṣṭha &c. So gotra is *anūdi* like the brāhmaṇa caste and the Veda. The word is also secondarily used to denote a person, who is very illustrious on account of his learning, wealth, valour or generosity,

1129. अत्र गोत्रभूतमपत्यमनन्तरमपि न तु पाणिनेरिव पारिभाषिकं पौत्रप्रभृत्येव । तथात्वे प्रमाणाभावात् । ... अपत्याधिकारादप्यत्र लौकिकस्यैव गोत्रस्य ग्रहणमिति भाष्य-कैयटपदमञ्जरीदिषु स्थितम् । सं. प्र. pp. 591-92.

1130. यथैव समाने पुरुषत्वे ब्राह्मणत्वादिविशेषः, एवं समाने ब्राह्मणत्वे वसिष्ठादि-गोत्रभेदः प्रतिगोत्रं च समानार्थेयाणि । ... स्मरन्ति च सूत्रकारा गोत्रभेदसंबन्धेन प्रवरान् यथैतद्गोत्रं तस्यैव प्रवरा इति । गोत्रभेदस्तु तद्गोत्रजैरेव स्मर्यते वयं पराशरा वयमुपमन्यव इति । यद्यपि गोत्रवत्प्रवरानपि स्मरन्ति तथापि बहुत्वात्कदाचिद्विस्मरेयुरिति गोत्रमुपलक्षणणीकृत्यं प्रवरस्तुतिरुपनिषद्वा । गोत्रं तु स्मरन्ति । न च तस्य किञ्चिदुपलक्षणमस्ति य एवं रूपस्तस्येवं गोत्रमिति । मेधा० on मनु III. 5.

who thereby gives a name to his descendants and then becomes the founder of the family. This is *laukika* gotra. But this is not the meaning of gotras which brāhmaṇas have. The secondary meaning may apply to the word gotra when used in the case of kṣatriyas'.¹¹³¹ The Mit. on Yāj. I. 53 says 'gotra is that which is known from tradition handed down in the family.'¹¹³² Each gotra is associated with one, two, three or five sages (but never four or more than five) that constitute the pravara of that gotra.¹¹³³ The gotras are arranged in groups, e. g. there are according to the Āśvalāyana-śrauta-sūtra four subdivisions of the Vasiṣṭha gaṇa, viz. Upamanyu, Parāśara, Kuṇḍina and Vasiṣṭha (other than the first three). Each of these four again has numerous sub-sections, each being called gotra. So the arrangement is first into gaṇas, then into pakṣas, then into individual gotras. The first has survived in the Bhṛgu and Āṅgīrasa gaṇa. According to Baud. the principal eight gotras were divided into pakṣas. The pravara of Upamanyu is Vasiṣṭha, Bharadvasu, Indrapramada; the pravara of the Parāśara gotra is Vasiṣṭha, Śāktya, Pārāśarya; the pravara of the Kuṇḍina gotra is Vasiṣṭha, Maitrāvaruṇa, Kaundinya and the pravara of Vasiṣṭhas other than these three is simply Vasiṣṭha. It is therefore that some define pravara as 'the group of sages that distinguishes the founder (lit. the starter) of one gotra from another'.¹¹³⁴

Though the word pravara does not occur in the Rgveda, the word 'ārṣeya' occurs therein and the system of pravara goes back almost to the Rgveda. Rg. IX. 97. 51 has 'thereby may we acquire wealth and ārṣeya resembling Jamadagni's.' Sometimes the idea of invoking Agni is conveyed without using

1131. किमेतद्गोत्रं नाम । आदिपुरुषः संज्ञाकारी विद्यावित्तशौचौदार्यादिगुणयोगेन ख्याततमो येन कुलं व्यपदिश्यते । ब्राह्मणानां च तैरेव (भृगुगर्गालवादिभिः) गोत्रव्यपदेशो युक्तः । तानि हि मुख्यानि गोत्राणि स्वरूपेण तत्र गोत्रशब्दः प्रवर्तते । न हि तेषां गोत्रत्वे एतद्व्यपदेशो भवति आदिपुरुषः संज्ञाकारी गोत्रमिति । अनादित्वदेवतद्वेत्तृत्वाणां ब्राह्मणाद्विजातिवत् । न हि पराशरजन्मत ऊर्ध्वं पराशरव्यपदेशः केषांचिद्ब्राह्मणानाम् । एवं सति आदिमत्ता वेदस्य प्रसज्यते । नहि यथा ब्राह्मणो नित्यं गोत्रं स्मरति एवं क्षत्रियादयः । तस्मात्तेषां लौकिकमेव गोत्रं, आदिपुरुषः संज्ञाकारी ख्याततम इति । मेधा० on मनु. III. 194.

1132. गोत्रं वंशपरंपरामसिद्धम् । मिताक्षरा on या. I. 53 ; गोत्रं वंशपरंपरामसिद्धमेव यच्च सूत्रादिषु गोत्रपरिगणनं तदपि प्रसिद्धिमूलकमेव । सं. प्र. p. 592.

1133. एकं वृणीते द्वौ वृणीते त्रीन् वृणीते न चतुरो वृणीते न पञ्चाति वृणीते इति विज्ञायते । आप. श्रौ. सू. 24. 6. 7.

1134. प्रवरः गोत्रप्रवर्तकस्य मुनेर्व्यवर्तको मुनिगण इत्यर्थः । परा. मा. I. part 2 p. 70. This is quoted in the उद्वाहृतत्वं p. 111.

the word *pravara* or *ārṣeya*. In Rg. VIII. 102. 4¹¹³⁵ it is said 'I invoke Agni just as Aurva, Bhr̥gu and Apnavāna did.' It is remarkable that these are three of the five *pravara* sages of the Vatsa-Bhr̥gus according to Baud. (3). Rg. I. 45. 3 has 'O Jātavedas (Agni), give heed to the summons of Praskanva, as in the case of Priyamedha, Atri, Virūpa and Angiras.'¹¹³⁶ In Rg. VII. 18. 21 it is said 'they who from house to house gladdened thee, being desirous of thee, viz. Parāśara, Śatayātu and Vasiṣṭha, will not forget the friendship of a liberal patron (like thee)'.¹¹³⁷ It deserves to be noted that this mantra mentions Parāśara (who in later mythology is the grandson of Vasiṣṭha and son of Śakti), Śatayātu (who is Śakti according to Sāyana), and Vasiṣṭha. Parāśara, Śakti and Vasiṣṭha constitute the *pravara* of Parāśara gotra (according to Āśv. and Baud). In the Atharvaveda (XI. 1. 16, XI. 1. 25, 26, 32, 33, 35, XII. 4. 2 and 12, XVI. 8. 12-13) *ārṣeya* means 'descendants of sages or those who are related to sages'. In the Tai. S. both *ārṣeya* and *pravara* occur in the sense of the sūtras. In the Tai. S. II. 5. 8. 7 (which refers to the recitation of the Sāmīdhenī verses) we read "he says 'choose (or invoke) ye the fire called *havyavāhana*' ; he chooses him (the fire) of the gods ; he chooses the *ārṣeya* ; in so doing he does not depart from the relationship (by blood) and doing so serves for continuity. He chooses the later ones beginning from the remoter ones". In this passage '*ārṣeyam*' appears to be used in the sense of 'one or more illustrious ancestors of the sacrificer' and reference is made to one of the two modes of mentioning the sages constituting the *pravara*. '*Ārṣeya*' may also be taken here as an adjective (qualifying Agni), the meaning being 'he invokes Agni by the names of the illustrious ancestor sages of the *yajamāna*'. In one mode the remotest ancestor is named first in a *taddhita* (derivative) formation, then his descendant and so on, the sage nearest the sacrificer being mentioned last. For example, the *pravara* of Bhr̥gu Vatsa is 'Bhārgava-cyavana-apnavānaurva-jāmadagnyeti'. This method is employed by the Hotṛ priest when he invokes fire as the divine Hotṛ with the *pravara*-mantra '*Agne mahān-asī brāhmaṇa bhārata deveddha*

1135. और्वभृगुवच्छुचिममवानवदा हुवे। अग्निं सहस्रवाससम् ॥ ऋ. VIII. 102. 4. According to the अनुक्रमणी this is a *sūkta* of a भार्गव named प्रयोन.

1136. प्रियमेधवद्विषज्जातवेदो विरूपवत् । अङ्घ्रिरस्वन्महिद्वत् प्रस्कण्वस्य शुधी हवम् ॥ ऋ. I. 45. 3.

1137. प्र ये गृहादममदुस्त्वाया पराशरः शतयातुर्वसिष्ठः । ऋ. VII. 18. 21. शतयातु may literally mean 'one who is master of a hundred magic tricks,' or 'on whom a hundred magic tricks were practised'.

manviddha ṛṣistuta &c.' (vide Tai. S. II. 5. 9. and Śat. Br. I. 4. 2. Āśv. Śr. I. 2. 27-I. 3. 6). In the other mode the affix 'vat' is used after the name of each pravara sage and the remotest one is mentioned last (e.g. Jamadagnivat, Ūrvavat, Apnavānavat, Cyavanavat, Bhṛguvat). This mode is employed by the *adhvaryu* when he chooses the Hotṛ priest.¹¹³⁸ The Tai. S. II. 5. 11. 9 appears to refer to one (i.e. 2nd) mode. The Kauṣītaki brāhmaṇa explains the purpose of taking the names of ancestors 'as the gods do not partake of the offering of him who has no list of (illustrious) ancestors, therefore he pronounces the ṛṣeya of the sacrificer.' The Ait. Br. (34. 7) has an interesting passage on pravara. When a brāhmaṇa is initiated for a sacrifice, that fact is announced in these words 'a brāhmaṇa has been initiated for a sacrifice.' How is the initiation of the kṣatriya to be announced? The reply of the Ait. Br. is 'even in the case of the kṣatriya the announcement is to be in the same form (viz. a brāhmaṇa has been initiated); but with the pravara of the family priest. Therefore they should proclaim the kṣatriya's initiation as a sacrificer with the ṛṣeya of his family priest and should invoke Agni with the pravara of his family priest.'¹¹³⁹ The Āśv. Śr. (Uttara ṣaṭka VI. 15. 4-5) and Baud. Śr. (pravara-praśna 54) say that in the case of kṣatriyas and vaiśyas the pravara of their purohita was to be employed or the pravara 'Mānava-Aila-Paurūravasa' or simply 'Manuvat.' The origin of that rule is to be found in the above passage of the Ait. Br. There is another similar passage in the Ait. Br. (35. 5). The Śat. Br.

1138. This rule is stated in Āp. Śrauta (24. 5. 8) and Baud. Śrauta (pravara-dharmasūtra 2.) 'अत ऊर्ध्वानध्वर्युर्गुणीतेऽस्तुतोर्वाचो होतेत्येष एवोभयोः सर्वत्रोद्देशः'.

1139. अथ यज्ञजमानस्यार्षेयमाह न इ वा अनार्षेयस्य देवा हविर्हन्ति तस्मादस्यार्षेयमाह । कौषीतकि ब्रा. III. 2. After the words अग्ने महौ असि ब्राह्मण भारत are recited, the invoking of the ṛṣeya of the sacrificer by the Hotṛ priest takes place and then the remaining words of the formula देवेन्द्र नन्विद्ध ऋषिस्तुत &c. are uttered. This is shown by the Tai. S. itself (II. 5. 7. 8) and by the Śat. Br. I. 4. 2. 2-5. Agni is styled by ṛṣi names such as Bhārgava, Cyavana &c. because fire was kindled by these ancient sages and oblations were thrown into it by them. The Adhvaryu recites the mantra अग्निर्देवो होता देवान् यक्षद्विर्द्वाश्चिकित्वात्ममुष्वद्धरतवत् and then recites the pravara of the *yajamāna* with 'vat' added to each name and then proceeds ब्रह्मण्वदा च वक्षद् ब्राह्मणा अस्य यज्ञस्य प्रवितारः (vide Śat. Br. I. 5. 1. 5-13, Āp. Śr. II. 16. 5-11). It is on account of this that the Śaṃskāra-ratnamālā (p. 416) explains *pravara* as प्रवियस्ते अग्नेर्विशेषणस्वेवोत्कीर्त्यन्ते इति प्रवराः. The names of the ancient illustrious sages become the attributes of Fire that is invoked by the hotṛ.

I. 4. 2. 3-4¹¹⁴⁰ shows that the illustrious ancestors to be invoked were supposed to be related as father and son and not by apostolic succession.

The Mahābhārata says that the original gotras were only four viz. Āṅgiras, Kaśyapa, Vasiṣṭha, Bhr̥gu.¹¹⁴¹ The verses are rather abruptly introduced in the epic and there is nothing to show on what this statement was based and it appears that it is due to the imagination of the writer. Baud. as shown above states that the original gotras are eight. But it is remarkable that Bhr̥gu and Āṅgiras (whose divisions and sub-divisions are many) are not included by him in these eight. Therefore, it appears that even Baudhāyana is not correctly stating the number of original gotras. Gautama and Bharadvāja are stated to be two out of the original eight, but both of them instead of being separately dealt with are grouped under the comprehensive Āṅgirasagana. So even Baud. is not to be implicitly followed. The Bālabhāṭṭi mentions eighteen principal gotras (eight as in Baud. plus ten more some of which are names of mythical kings¹¹⁴²). Baud. himself says that there are millions of gotras and in the Baud. Pravarādhyāya there are over 500 names of gotra and pravara sages; while the Pravaramaṇjari quotes a verse that 'there are three crores of them'¹¹⁴³ and so the gotra system is difficult to comprehend', and it mentions about 5000 gotras. Therefore, as the Smṛtyarthasāra says the nibandhas endeavour to place the innumerable gotras under groups and distribute them among 49 pravaras (mentioned by Baud.)¹¹⁴⁴. Some idea of these

1140. अर्थार्थेयं प्रवृणीते । ... परस्ताद्वर्वाक् प्रवृणीते परस्ताद्वर्वाच्यः प्रजाः प्रजा-यन्ते । ज्यायसप्तय उ चैवैतं निहृते । इदं हि पितृवामेऽथ पुत्रोथ पौत्रस्तस्मात्परस्ताद्वर्वाक् प्रवृणीते । शतपथ I. 4. 2. 3-4; compare कात्यायनश्रौत III. 2. 7-11 अथ प्रवृणीतेऽ-श्रिवैवो दैव्यो होता देवान्यक्षद्विद्वान्मनुष्यद्भिरतवदसुवदसुवदिति यजमानार्थेयाण्याह परस्ताद्वर्वाक् त्रीणि । यावन्तो वा मन्त्रकृतः । पुरोहितार्थेयेण वा । क्षत्रियवैश्ययोश्च नित्यम् । मनुवदिति वा सर्वेषाम् ।

1141. मूलगोत्राणि चत्वारि सप्तपञ्चानि पार्थिव । अङ्गिराः कश्यपश्चैव वसिष्ठो भृगुरेव च ॥ कर्मतोऽन्यानि गोत्राणि सप्तपञ्चानि पार्थिव । नामधेयानि तपसा तानि च ग्रहणं सताम् ॥ शान्तिपर्व 297. 17-18.

1142. अथ संग्रहकृतसंग्रह उच्यते । जामदग्न्यो वीतहव्यो वैन्यो शुत्समदाहव्यः । वाग्रव्यश्चो गौतमाख्यश्च भरद्वाजाहव्यः कपिः ॥ हारतो मौदृत्यकण्वौ विरूपो विष्णुवृद्धकः । अत्रिविश्वामित्रकौ च वसिष्ठः कश्यपाहव्यः ॥ अगस्त्यश्चेति सुनयो ह्यष्टादशगणाः स्मृताः । बालम्भट्टी on मिता० on या. I. 53 (p. 176, ed. by Gharpure).

1143. 'गोत्राणां कोटिसंख्यात्रितयमितिमतां दुर्ग्रहत्वाच्च तस्मात् । प्रवरमञ्जरी p. 2.

1144. सुनिप्रणीतप्रवरैरुनपञ्चाशता वयम् । अनन्तान्यपि गोत्राणि वर्गीकृत्याभिध-धमे ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 15.

gotras and their distribution among the pravaras is given below. The appendix under note No. 1144 collects together the 49 pravara groups.

The Bhṛgugaṇa and the Āṅgirogaṇa are very extensive. The Bhṛgus are of two sorts, Jāmādagnya and non-Jāmādagnya. The Jāmādagnya Bhṛgus are again twofold, Vatsas and Bidas (or Vidas); the non-Jāmādagnya Bhṛgus are fivefold viz. Ārṣṭiṣeṇas, Yāskas, Mitrayus, Vainyas and Śunakas (these latter five are called *kevala Bhṛgus*). Under each of these sub-divisions there are many gotras, on the names and number of which the sūtrakāras are not agreed. The pravara of Jāmādagnya Vatsas is constituted by five sages according to Baud. and by three according to Kātyāyana. The pravara of the Bidas and the Ārṣṭiṣeṇas also has five sages.¹¹⁴⁵ These three (viz. Vatsas, Bidas and Ārṣṭiṣeṇas) are styled *pañcāvattin* (Baud. 5) and they cannot inter-marry (the reason will be explained below). The five non-Jāmādagnya Bhṛgus have each of them numerous sub-divisions. These divisions of Bhṛgus are given here according to Baud. Āp. has only six of them (and not seven as he excludes Bidas from this group). According to Kātyāyana, Bhṛgus have twelve sub-divisions (vide Saṁ. Pr. p. 625).

The Āṅgirogaṇa has three divisions, Gautamas, Bharadvājas and kevalāṅgirases; out of whom Gautamas have seven sub-divisions, Bharadvājas have four (Raukṣāyapas, Gargas, Kapis and Kevala-Bharadvājas), and Kevala-Āṅgirases have six sub-divisions and each of these again is sub-divided into numerous gotras. This is according to Baud. Other sūtrakāras differ as to the subdivisions. Atri (one of the eight primary gotras) is subdivided into four (Atris proper, Vādbhūtakas, Gaviṣṭhīras, Mudgalas). Viśvāmitra is sub-divided into ten, which are further sub-divided into 72 gotras. Kaśyapas are sub-divided into Kaśyapas, Nidhruvas, Rebhas, and Śaṇḍīlas. Vasiṣṭha has four sub-divisions (Vasiṣṭhas with one pravara only, Kuṇḍīnas, Upamanyus and Parāśaras) which are further sub-divided into 105 gotras. Agastya has three sub-divisions (Agastyas, Somavāhas and Yajñavāhas), the first of which is further sub-divided into twenty gotras.

1145. इत्येते वत्साः । तेषां पञ्चार्षेयः प्रवरो भवति भार्गवच्यावनामवानौर्वजामदृग्न्येति होता जमदग्निवदूर्ववदमवानवच्छयवनवद्भृगुवदित्यध्वर्युः । बौ. (3); इत्येते बिदास्तेषां पञ्चार्षेयः प्रवरो भवति भार्गवच्यावनामवानौर्ववेदेति होता बिदवदूर्ववदमवानवच्छयवनवद्भृगुवदित्यध्वर्युः । बौ. (4); आर्ष्टिषेणानां भार्गवच्यावनामवानाष्टिषेणानूपेति । आश्व. (also बौ. 5.)

When it is said that marriage with a sagotra or a sapravara girl is forbidden, each of these is separately an obstacle to marriage. Therefore, a girl, though not sapravara, may be yet sagotra and so ineligible for marriage or though not sagotra may yet be sapravara and not eligible. For example, the gotras of Yaska, Vādhūla, Mauna, Mauka are different, yet a marriage between persons belonging to these gotras is not possible, because the pravara of all these is the same, viz. 'Bhārgava-Vaitahavya-Sāvetasa-iti'.¹¹⁴⁶ So also though the gotras Śaṁkṛti, Pūtimāṣa, Taṇḍi, Śambhu and Śaṁgava are different, there can be no marriage between them as the pravara is the same, viz. 'Āṅgirasa, Gaurivita, Śaṁkṛtya' (acc. to Āśv. Śrauta). When it is said that samāna-pravaras cannot marry, sameness may be due to only one sage being the same in the pravaras of two gotras or there may be two or three or more sages that are common. The general rule is that if even one sage is the same¹¹⁴⁷ in the pravaras of two different gotras, then they are sapravara, except in the case of the Bhṛgu group and the group of Āṅgirasas. In these two latter unless there are at least three sages common (when the pravara is constituted by five sages) or at least two sages are common (when pravara consists of only three sages), there is no sapravaratva and no bar to marriage. It will be noticed that among the five pravara sages of the Vatsas, Bidas and Ārṣṭiṣeṇas quoted above there are three sages that are common and so they cannot inter-marry.

Though the vast majority of gotras have three pravara sages, a few have only one pravara sage or two sages or five. Those who have only one sage are Mitrāyus (pravara Vādhryaśva according to Āśv.), the Vasiṣṭhas (other than Kuṇḍina, Parāśara and Upamanyu) have only one pravara Vasiṣṭha, the Śunakas have one pravara Gr̥tsamada (according to Āśv.) or Śaunaka or Gāṛtsamada (according to Baud. 9); the Agastis have one pravara Āgastya (according to Āp. Sr. 24. 10. 9); Āśv. optionally allows three pravaras to Mitrāyus (Bhārgava-Daivodāsa-Vādhryaśva) and to Śunakas (viz. Bhārgava-

1146. आश्वलायनश्रौत says 'यास्कवाधूलमौनमौकशार्कशिसार्हिसावर्णिशालं-कायन-जैमिनि-दैवत्यायनानां भार्गवैतहव्यसावेवसेति'; vide also स्मृतिच. I. p. 68, मदनपारिजात p. 138.

1147. ह्यार्षेयसंनिपातेऽविवाहस्यार्षेयाणां त्र्यार्षेयसंनिपातेऽविवाहः पञ्चार्षेयाणाम् । असमानप्रवरैर्विवाहः । एक एव ऋषिर्यावत्प्रवरेष्वनुवर्तते । तावत्समानगोत्रत्वमन्यत्र भृगवङ्गिरसां गणात् । इति । पञ्चानां त्रिषु सामान्यादविवाहस्त्रिषु द्वयोः । भृगवङ्गिरोगणेष्वेव शेषेष्वेकाप्येव चारयेत् । नौ. (प्रवराध्याय 2).

Śaunahotra-Gārtśamada) and Āp. also allows to Agastis three pravaras (Viz. Āgastya-Dārdhacyuta-Aidmavāha-iti). According to Āp. and the purāṇas, Dhāpayantas have two pravaras (Vaiśvāmītra-Paurāṇa-iti), Aṣṭakas Lohitas have two (Vaiśvāmītra-Aṣṭaka-iti), and Śaṇḍilas also have two (Daivala-Asita-iti). But he says that according to some the latter have three pravaras also (Kāśyapa-Daivala-Asita-iti), while Baudhāyana gives four optional groups of three sages each for Śaṇḍilas (Baud. 43). For Vāri-Dhāpayantas Āśv. prescribes three only (Vaiśvāmītra-Devarāta-Paurāṇa) and also for the Aṣṭakas. According to Baud. the Vatsas, Bidas and Ārṣṭiṣeṇas (among the Bhṛgus) have five pravara sages; so also among Āngirases, the Kaumaṇḍas, Dirghatamasas, Raukṣāyaṇas and Gargas have five pravara sages, though the last have optionally three also.

The Āp. śr. ¹¹⁴⁸ (24. 5. 6) says 'the sages to be invoked were to be three and they were to be seers of mantras'. It is therefore that the number of pravara sages is limited; there was no such requirement for a gotra and so gotras multiplied to an unlimited extent.

There are certain families that are dvigotras (i. e. have two gotras). Āśv. uses the word 'dvipravācanāḥ' for them ¹¹⁴⁹. They are principally three viz. Śauṅga-śaiśiris, Saṁkṛtis and Laugākṣis. From a Śuṅga, a sub-division of Bharadvāja gotra, was born a son to the wife of a Śaiśiri, a sub-division of Viśvāmītra (by *niyoga*); the son, therefore, came to be called Śauṅga-Śaiśiri. Therefore Śauṅga-Śaiśiris cannot marry in both Bharadvāja and Viśvāmītra gotras. Their pravaras are given below ¹¹⁵⁰. They have to select one pravara sage from one gotra and two from the other gotra or two from the first and three from the other. A pravara of four sages is not allowed nor of one beyond five. For the other dvigotras, the Saṁ. K. (pp. 682-686), Nirpayasindhu p. 300 ff. may be consulted. In the case of the adopted son also, on the analogy of the Śauṅga-śaiśiris,

1148. ऋचिर्वृणीते मन्त्रकृतो वृणीते यथर्षि मन्त्रकृतो वृणीत इति विज्ञायते। आप. श्रौ. 24. 5-6.

1149. अथ य एते द्विप्रवाचनाः यथैतच्छौद्रशैशिरयः। भरद्वाजा ह शुङ्गाः कताः शैशिरयः। आश्व. श्रौ. (Uttaraśaṭka VI).

1150. According to आश्व. the प्रवर of शौद्रशैशिरि is आङ्गिरसवार्हस्पत्य-भारद्वाजकात्याक्निलेति। According to others it is आङ्गिरसवार्हस्पत्य-भारद्वाज-शौद्रशैशिरि or they are only त्रिप्रवर, आङ्गिरसकात्याक्निलेति। vide सं. प्र. p. 642 and सं. कौ. p. 682.

both gotras and the pravaras of both gotras have to be considered and the dictum of Manu (IX. 142) that 'the son given does not share the gotra and inheritance of the genitive father and the *svadhā* (*śrāddhas* etc.) of the giver ceases', is restricted only to matters of inheritance, *śrāddha* and the like and does not apply to marriage. ¹¹⁵¹

A few words must be said about the gotra and pravara of kings and other *kṣatriyas*. It appears from the Ait.Br. quoted above (p. 488) that in the case of *kṣatriyas* the pravara of their *purohita* was employed in religious acts where pravara had to be recited. This leads to the inference that most *kṣatriyas* had forgotten their gotras and pravaras by that time. The Śrauta sūtras allow ¹¹⁵² an option to *kṣatriyas* (to kings according to Āśv.). 'They may employ the pravara of their purohitas or all *kṣatriyas* may employ the same pravara viz. Mānava-Aila-Paurūravasa-iti'. Medhātithi on Manu III. 5 states that the distinctions of gotras and pravaras concern primarily brāhmanas alone and not *kṣatriyas* and vaiśyas and quotes Āśv. Śr. (I. 3) in support. The Mit. and other nibandhakāras rely on the first alternative mentioned in the sūtras and say that in marriages of *kṣatriyas* and vaiśyas the gotras and pravaras of their purohitas should be considered, as they have no specific gotras of their own ¹¹⁵³. This is carrying the doctrine of *atideśa* (extension) too far or with a vengeance. The Saṃ. K. (pp. 689-690) assigns reasons for this attitude of the Mit. but they are not satisfactory. Ancient literature and epigraphic records show that kings had gotras of their own. In the Mahābhārata it is said that when Yudhiṣṭhira

1151. उक्तं च पारिजते संग्रहे-द्वयामुप्यायणका ये च दत्तकक्रीतकादयः । गोत्रद्वये-
प्युद्धाह्याः शौङ्गशैशिरयो तथा ॥ तथा नारायणवृत्तौ । दत्तक्रीतादीनां जनकपालकयोगोत्र-
निषेधः शौङ्गशैशिरस्य प्रदर्शनार्थत्वादिति । सं. को. p. 688 ; विवाहे तु दत्तकमात्रेण वीजि-
प्रतिग्रहीत्रोः पित्रोर्गोत्रप्रवरवर्जनं कार्यम् । प्रवरमन्त्र्यादिनिबन्धेषु तस्मिन्निर्णयः । सं. को.
p. 182 ; compare सं. प्र. pp. 656-657, संस्काररत्नमाला pp. 451-456 (where the
rules about marriage, āśauca and offering of piṇḍa as to adopted sons
are considered).

1152. पुरोहितप्रवरो राज्ञाम् । अथ यदि सार्धं प्रवृणीरन् मानवैलपौरुवरसेति । आश्व.
श्रौ. ; अथ क्षत्रियाणाम् । यद्यह सार्धं प्रवृणीरन्नेक एवैषां प्रवरः मानवैलपौरुवरसेति । पुरुरवो-
वदिडावन्मनुवदिति । आप. श्रौ. 24. 10. 11-12 ; क्षत्रियाणां व्याख्येयः प्रवरो भवति
मानवैलपौरुवरसेति होता पुरु ... सनुवदित्यध्वर्युः । ... क्षत्रियवैश्यानां पुरोहितप्रवरो
भवतीति विज्ञायते । बो. (प्रवराध्याय 52-54).

1153. यद्यपि राजन्यविशं प्रतिस्विकर्षोत्राभावात्प्रवराभावस्तथापि पुरोहितगोत्रप्रवरौ
वेदितव्यौ । तथा च 'यजमानस्यार्थेयान् प्रवृणीते' इत्युक्त्वा 'पौरोहित्यान् राजन्यविशं
प्रवृणीते' इत्याहोत्रालायनः । मित्ता on या. I. 52. The quotation is from आश्व.
श्रौ. I. 3. The मित्ता passage is quoted in the उद्ग्रहस्तव p. 111.

went to the court of Virāṭa in the guise of a brāhmaṇa and was asked by the king to state his gotra he said that he was of the Vaiyāghrapadya gotra (Virāṭa-parva 7. 8-12). That this was the gotra of the Pāṇḍavas also follows from the fact that in the Bhīṣmatarpaṇa¹¹⁵⁴ that is performed on the eighth day of the bright half of Māgha, Bhīṣma's gotra is given as Vaiyāghrapāda or-padya and pravara as Sāṅkṛti. Jaimini (VI. 6. 12-15) establishes that the Kulāyayajña was to be performed jointly by a king and his purohita (and so they could use different pravaras it appears). The Pallavas of Kāñci had Bhāradvāja as their gotra (vide E. I. vol. I p. 5). The Cālukyas are often described as 'mānavya-gotra' (vide E. I. vol. VI. p. 337). In a copper-plate grant of Jayacandradeva (dated samvat 1233 i. e. 1176 A. D.) the donee was a kṣatriya described as Rāuta-śrī-Rājyadharavarman of the Vatsa gotra and of five pravaras viz. Bhārgava-Cyavana-Apnavāna-Aurva-Jāmadagnya.¹¹⁵⁵ In the Garra (Bundelkhand) plate of the Candella king Trailokyavarma of Kālāñjara a village is granted to Rāuta Sāmanta of the Bhāradvāja gotra in recognition of his father's death in battle with the Turuṣkas (E. I. vol. 16, p. 274).

In many inscriptions and copper-plate grants hundreds of donees with their gotras and pravaras occur and it would be an interesting study to compare the latter with the material derived from the sūtras and nibandhas. For example, vide E. I. vol. 19, pp. 115-117 and 248-250 for about 205 donees and their gotras in the plates of Bhāskaravarman, E. I. vol. 14, p. 202ff (500 donees with gotras in the time of Candradeva Gāhaḍavāla, samvat 1150), E. I. vol. 13 p. 237, E. I. vol. 8 pp. 316-317 (śake 1346), E. I. vol. 9 p. 103 (32 donees with gotras, pravaras, śākhas &c.), E. I. vol. 12 pp. 163-167 (120 donees with gotras, śake 1508), Gupta Ins. No. 55 Chammak plate of Pravarasena &c. Even the Buddhists kept the system of gotras (vide E. I. vol. 10, Lüder's list, No. 158).

According to Āp. Śr. the vaiśyas had¹¹⁵⁶ a single pravara 'Vātsapra', while according to Baud. they had three, viz.

1154. The मन्त्र in the भीष्मतर्पण is वैयाघ्रपादगोत्राय सांकृतिप्रवराय चा गङ्गापुत्राय भीष्माय प्रदास्येहं तिलोदकम् । अपुत्राय ददाम्येतत्सलिलं भीष्मवर्मणे । स्मृतिच० I. p. 198; vide also कृत्यरत्नाकर pp. 509-10.

1155. Vide I. A. vol 18 pp. 136-138.

1156. एकार्षेया विशः । वात्सप्रेति होता । वत्सप्रवदित्यध्वर्युः । आप. 24. 10. 16; वैश्यानां त्रैकार्षेयः प्रवरो भवति भालन्दनवात्सप्रमाङ्किलेति होता । माङ्कितिलवद्वत्सप्रवद्वलन्दनवदित्यध्वर्युः । बौ. (प्रवराध्याय 53).

Bhālandana-Vātsapra-Māṅktila'. They could also employ the pravara of their purohitas. The Sam. Pr. (p. 659) says that Bhālandana is the gotra of vaiśyas.

If a person does not know his own gotra and pravara he should take those of his ācārya (teacher of Veda), according to Āp.¹¹⁵⁷ Though he takes his teacher's gotra, it is only the teacher's daughter that is forbidden to him in marriage and not other girls of the same gotra as the ācārya's. Both Sam. K. and Sam. Pr. (p. 650) quote a verse that when one does not know one's gotra one should call oneself of Kāśyapa gotra. This is so when he does not know even his teacher's gotra. The Sm. C. (śrāddha section p. 481) says that this is so even when one does not know the gotra of one's maternal grand-father (i.e. he should offer piṇḍa with Kāśyapa gotra to his maternal grand-father).

The word gotra also came to mean any family name (surname). In the inscriptions we find this usage very often. For example, in the Bannahalli plate of the Kadamba king Kṛṣṇavarma II (E. I. vol. VI, p. 18) a śreṣṭhin (a merchant) is said to have been of the Tuṭhiyalla gotra and pravara. The Redḍi king (a śūdra) Allaya Vema of Rajahmundry was said to have been of the Polvola gotra (E. I. vol. XIII, p. 237, of *śake* 1356).

A few interesting matters about pravaras are noted below. It is noteworthy that even as to the same gotra, there is great divergence among the sūtrakāras about the sages constituting the pravara e. g. as to Śāṇḍilyagotra. Āśv. gives two groups of the sages 'Śāṇḍila-Asita-Daivala-iti' or 'Kāśyapa-Asita-Daivala-iti', but Āp. states his own view that there are only two sages in the pravara viz. 'Daivala-Asita iti' and that some say they are three, Kāśyapa-Daivala-Asita-iti; while Baud. states four groups, 'Kāśyapa-Avatsāra-Daivala-iti, Kāśyapa-Avatsāra-Asita-iti; Śāṇḍila-Asita-Daivala-iti; Kāśyapa-Avatsāra-Śāṇḍila-iti.' No adequate reasons can be given why even at so early an age as the sūtras, not only the order of the names in the pravara, but the very names in the pravara and their number should have varied so much. Baud.¹¹⁵⁸ (pravarādhyāya sec. 44) notes that

1157. अथासं प्रज्ञातवन्धुराचार्यामुज्यायणममुप्रज्वीताचार्यप्रवरं प्रवृणीत । आप. औ. 24. 10. 17.

1158. इत्येते लोकाक्षयोऽहर्वसिद्धा नक्तं कश्यपास्तेषां ज्यार्षेयः प्रवरो भवति काश्यपावत्सारावसिधेति होता काश्यपावत्सारासितेति वा । औ. (प्रवराध्याय 44). वसिधेः काश्यपैर्नित्यं लौगाक्षीणामनन्वयः । अहर्वसिद्धोक्तिस्तु प्रयाजाहयादिगोचरा ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसात् p. 15; अथ वीतहत्या यास्कबाधूलमोनमोकाः । तेषां ज्यार्षेयः । भार्गव-वेत्तहव्य-सावेदसेति ।... अथ वैत्याः पार्थाः तेषां ज्यार्षेयः । भार्गववैत्यपार्थेति । आप. औ. 24. 6. 1-2 and 7-8.

the Laugākṣis (or Laukākṣis) are Vasiṣṭhas by day and Kaśyapas by night and their pravaras also show this double relationship. The Smṛtyarthasāra says that this picturesque description of them has reference to the *prayājas* and the like i. e. by day they follow the procedure of *prayājas* peculiar to Vasiṣṭhas and by night that peculiar to the Kaśyapas.

Among the gotras there are names of mythical kṣatriyas and kings like Vitahavya and Vainya and among the names of pravara sages many legendary kings like Māndhātṛ, Ambariṣa, Yuvanāśva, Divodāsa appear. Vitahavya figures even in the R̥gveda as closely connected with the Bhṛgu (R̥g. VI. 15. 2-3). In the Mahābhārata it is narrated that Vitahavya, being a king, attacked Divodāsa, whose son Pratardana pursued Vitahavya, whereupon Vitahavya took shelter with Bhṛgu and that when Pratardana asked Bhṛgu whether there was any kṣatriya in the hermitage, Bhṛgu replied that there were all brāhmaṇas and that by this Vitahavya became a brāhmaṇa (Anuśāsana chap. 30).

Similarly the pravara of the Hāritas is either Āngirasa-Ambariṣa-Yauvanāśva-iti or Māndhātṛ-Ambariṣa-Yauvanāśva-iti. These are mythical royal sages. Among ¹¹⁵⁹ the Bhṛgu is a sub-division called Vainya which is further subdivided into Pārthas and Bāṣkalas. The story of Pṛthu who milked the earth is well-known (Droṇa-parva 69); he is called 'ādirāja' in Anuśāsana 166. 55. The Vāyupurāṇa in several places narrates that some kṣatriyas became the pravaras of brāhmaṇas. Vide chap. 88. 72-79, (about Viṣṇuvṛddha, ¹¹⁶⁰ who was descended from Purukutsa, whose son was Trasadasyu), chap. 88. 6-7, 92. 6, 99. 158-161, 99. 169-170 (Ānan. ed.) for other examples¹¹⁶¹. How and why kṣatriya names were adopted as brahmanical pravaras is obscure and difficult to understand. If one may hazard a guess, it is probably due to the fact that the purāṇas retain very ancient traditions of times when there were no water-tight varṇas and that ancient kings were learned in the

1159. वैन्याः पार्था बाष्कलास्तेषां व्याप्यैः प्रवरो भवति भार्गवचैत्यपार्थेति होता । बौ. (प्रवराध्याय 8).

1160. The प्रवर of विष्णुवृद्धगोत्र is आङ्गिरसपौत्रकुत्सत्रासदस्यवेति (vide Baud. sec. 20).

1161. अम्बरीषस्तु नाभागिर्विरूपस्तस्य चात्मजः । पृषदश्वो विरूपस्य तस्य पुत्रो रथीतरः । एते क्षत्रप्रसूता वै पुनश्चाङ्गिरसः स्मृताः । रथीतराणां प्रवराः क्षात्रोपेता द्विजातयः ॥ बायु 88. 6-7.

Vedic lore and maintained śrauta fires also, became famous as sages in whose name fire was to be invoked to carry offerings to Gods even by brāhmaṇas who came ages after them.

The connection of gotra and pravara may be stated thus: Gotra is the latest ancestor or one of the latest ancestors of a person by whose name his family has been known for generations; while pravara is constituted by the sage or sages who lived in the remotest past, who were most illustrious and who are generally the ancestors of the gotra sages or in some cases the remotest ancestor alone.

It has been seen (pp. 437-38) that marriage between parties that are sagotra or sapravara is no marriage and the woman does not become the man's wife. What were the consequences of such a void union? Baud.¹¹⁶² (pravarādhyāya 54) says that if a man has intercourse with a sagotra girl he should undergo the penance of cāndrāyana, after that he should not abandon the woman, but should only maintain her as if she were a mother or a sister; if a child is born it does not incur sin and it should take the gotra of Kāśyapa. Aparārka quotes (p. 80) Sumantu and another smṛti to the effect that if a person inadvertently marries a sagotra or samāna-pravara woman he should give up intercourse with her, should maintain her and undergo cāndrāyana.¹¹⁶³ But if he knowingly marries a sagotra or sapravara girl the penance was heavier (viz. that for incest) and if he has intercourse with her or begets a child from her he loses his caste and the child will be a cāṇḍāla.¹¹⁶⁴ The rule of Baud. that there would be no blemish and the child will be of Kāśyapa gotra is restricted to inadvertently marrying such a girl.¹¹⁶⁵ The Saṁ. Pr. quotes a verse of Kātyāyana to the effect that if a marriage is gone

1162. सगोत्रां गत्वा चान्द्रायणं चरेद् ब्रते परिनिष्ठिते ब्राह्मणीं न त्यजेन्मातृवद्भगिनी-
वद् गर्भो न दुष्यति कश्यप इति विज्ञायते । बौ. (प्रवराध्याय 54).

1163. परिणीय सगोत्रां तु समानप्रवरां तथा । त्यागं कृत्वा द्विजस्तस्यास्ततश्चान्द्रायणं
चरेत् ॥ ध्यायिष्वोपभोगस्य न तु तस्याः । यथाह सुमन्तुः । मातुलसुतां पैतृष्वसेयीं समा-
नार्थगोत्रां च परिणीय चान्द्रायणं चरेत् । परित्यज्यैनां बिभृयादिति । एतच्चाप्यतिपूर्वं वेदित-
व्यम् । अपरार्क p. 80. The verse परिणीय is ascribed to ज्ञाततप by सं. प्र.
p. 680 and other writers; सुमन्तु is quoted in उद्वाहतत्त्व p. 111.

1164. समानगोत्रप्रवरां कन्यामृद्वोपगम्य च । तस्यासुत्याद्य चण्डालं ब्राह्मण्यादेव
हीयते ॥ आपस्तम्ब quoted in सं. प्र. p. 680 and उद्वाहतत्त्व p. 112.

1165. यदि कश्चिज्ज्ञानतस्तां कन्यामृद्वपि गच्छति । शुरुतल्पव्रताच्छुभ्येद्वर्भस्तज्जोन्यतां
व्रजेत् ॥ भोगतस्तां परित्यज्य पालयेज्जननीमिव । अज्ञानादिन्दवैः शुभ्येद्विभिर्गर्भस्तु कश्यपः ।
स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 16.

through with a sagotra, the girl may be again given in marriage to another. But the Samh. Pr. gets rid of that inconvenient text by saying that it does not apply to the present age. So the poor girl for no fault of hers had to pass her whole life in enforced celibacy, being neither an unmarried woman nor a widow.¹¹⁶⁶

Questions about the validity of sagotra or sapravara marriages have not yet come before the courts; but it is likely that in the near future courts will have to deal with such cases. If a marriage takes place under the Special Marriage Act of 1872 (as amended in 1923) no difficulty will arise; but recently several marriages have been celebrated under the old *Sāstric* procedure between persons who are sagotra or sapravara. Upon the strict letter of the dharmaśāstra texts such marriages are absolutely void. But it seems that the legislature should intervene and declare sagotra and sapravara marriages valid. Whatever may have been the case thousands of years ago when there were no means of communication and when there were small communities, the prohibition of sagotra relationship had some plausibility and real feeling of close kinship about it; but now the prohibition has become meaningless. A man from Kashmir may marry a girl from Madras and the parents of both may have the same gotra. Granting for argument that the gotra sage was a common ancestor, one does not know how many generations have intervened between that remote ancestor and the intending spouses and particles of the ancestor's body, if they have survived at all in the intending spouses of the same gotra, must be in the present generation in the most attenuated state. The prohibitions based upon gotra and pravara are said by orthodox people to be prescribed upon unseen (*adr̥ṣṭa*) grounds and so they argue that they must be held to be absolute and not admitting of any evasion by any one calling himself a Vedic Hindu. One may be permitted to reply to these people that when almost every-body has given up the ancient cult of the *śrauta* and *grhya* fires and when hundreds of other innovations in ancient practices have been accepted without demur, there is hardly any justification for sticking to this one remnant of ancient practices. As a matter of fact many *brāhmaṇas* now do not remember their pravara themselves but have to be told by the priests what their pravara is. Certain prohibitions against

1166. विकर्मस्थः सगोत्रो वा दासो दीर्घमयोऽपि वा । ऊढापि देया सान्यस्मै सप्त-
वरणयुषणा । इति कात्यायनीयं सगोत्रोदायाः पुनर्विवाहस्मरणं तद्युगान्तरविषयम् । सं. प्र.
p. 681.

marriage between near sapinda relations may be respected on account of their universal acceptance. Even the Special Marriage Act of 1872 prescribes that there can be no marriage between parties when they trace descent to a common ancestor who is the great-grandfather or great-grandmother (or who is nearer even than these) of any one of them.

Sagotra relationship is in one direction wider than sapinda relationship and narrower than it in another so far as marriage is concerned. A man cannot marry the daughter of any sagotra, however distant the sagotra may be. Similarly even an adopted man cannot marry the daughter of a sagotra of his genitive father for two reasons, firstly because, though on adoption he becomes severed from his natural family for inheritance and offering of pinda (vide Manu IX. 142), his other relationships with the natural family remain intact; and secondly because Manu (III. 5) says that the girl must not be a sagotra of the bridegroom's father (and so even if by adoption a man goes into another gotra, it is the father's gotra that is to be considered). Sapinda relationship prohibiting marriage extends only to seven or five generations, but prohibitions on the ground of sagotra relationship extend to any number of generations. On the other hand sapindas may be either of the same gotra (i. e. sagotra) or of a different gotra (i. e. bhinnagotra). Thus up to a certain limit sapindas include both *sagotras* and *bhinnagotras*. The latter are called bandhus by the Mit.; they are all cognate relations and have an important place in inheritance. We have seen (p. 436-37) that sagotra marriages were totally forbidden in the sūtras (in the śrauta sūtras like Lāṭyāyana śrauta and in grhya and dharma sūtras). A passage of the Śat. Br. (quoted above at p. 461) is relied upon by Professors Macdonell and Keith (Vedic Index vol. I. p. 236) for holding that marriages within the third and fourth degrees on both maternal and paternal sides were allowed in the days of the Śatapatha and that therefore a man could marry in those days his paternal uncle's daughter. This latter is a startling proposition. The passage in the Śat. Br. is no doubt expressed in general words ('one may be united in the third or fourth generation'). But that passage is generally applicable even if only a marriage with a maternal uncle's daughter or paternal aunt's daughter is meant. The passage does not expressly allow paternal cousins' marriages. The dharma-sūtras prohibit sagotra marriages. Both the learned Professors, as most western scholars do, probably hold that

the Śatapatha is not separated from the sūtras by more than a few centuries. If a paternal uncle's daughter had been eligible for marriage in the times of the Śatapatha, but became forbidden in the times of the sūtras we shall have to suppose that an usage died out from one end of the country to another and an opposite usage became prevalent throughout within a few centuries. The smṛtis are not afraid of stating ancient practices which they themselves do not accept (i. e. *niyoga*). The smṛtis do not say that marriages with paternal uncle's daughters were ever allowed anywhere. So it appears that the Śatapatha is not referring to marriage with paternal uncle's daughter, but to marriage with maternal uncle's or paternal aunt's daughter. It must however be pointed out that Aparārka (pp. 15. 63), the Sm. C. (I. p. 12), Par. M. I. part 1 p. 133 and other digests quote a passage from the Brahmapurāṇa ¹¹⁶⁷ that sagotra and sapinda marriages are forbidden in the Kali age. It may be argued with some force that this implies that sagotra marriages once took place. But there are various ways of explaining this. It is possible that in the purāṇa the word gotra is not used in the technical sense, but only in the sense of family or surname. Among śūdras there is no gotra in the strict sense, but they also do not marry a girl who is believed to be of the same family, though the exact relationships or generations are not known. Besides it has been shown above that if a woman was a putrikā or married in the Gāndharva or Āsura form she retained the gotra of her father and the son of the putrikā would have the gotra of his maternal grand-father and yet being of a different family his marriage with the daughter of a sagotra of the maternal grand-father might have taken place in ancient times and was forbidden in the Kali age by the purāṇa. Similarly the implied reference to marriages of sapindas as taking place in former ages has probably marriage with maternal uncle's daughter in view. When in the kalivarjya texts it is said 'these dharmas are declared to be prohibited by the sages in the Kali age' (vide Vyavahāra-mayūkha p. 242), it is not proper to argue that everyone of the practices forbidden in the kali age was valid in former ages. All that is meant seems to be that most of them were allowed in former ages and these along with others enumerated are not to be practised in the Kali age, just

1167. सगोत्राद्वा सपिण्डाद्वा विवाहो गोवधस्तथा । नराश्वमेधौ मयं च कलौ वर्ज्यं
द्विजातिभिः ॥ ब्रह्मपुराण quoted in अपरार्क pp. 15 and 63 &c.

as when in a crowd many have umbrellas and a few have not, a speaker still says with reference to the whole crowd 'chatrino gacchanti' (here go persons with umbrellas).

There are certain other prohibitions about marriage. The *Smṛtimuktāphala* ¹¹⁶⁸ quotes a verse of Hārīta that one should not give one's daughter in exchange to another's son and receive that other's daughter in marriage for one's son, one should not give two daughters to the same man (at the same time), nor should one give one's two daughters to two persons who are brothers. But these dicta will now certainly be held as merely recommendatory. Besides there is no objection in India in modern times to marrying the deceased wife's sister, though even in England the deceased wife's sister could not be married until 1907 (when the Deceased Wife's Sister's Marriage Act, 1907, Edw. 7 chap. 47 legalised such marriages).

The next question is as to who have power to arrange for the marriage of a girl and to give her away. The *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* (24. 38-39) specifies the order of persons who are entitled to exercise this right of guardianship in marriage 'the father, the paternal grand-father, a brother, a kinsman, a maternal grand-father and the mother are the persons, by whom the girl may be given away in marriage. In the absence of the preceding one (the right) devolves upon the next in order, in case he is able'. *Yāj.* (I. 63-64) gives a slightly different order viz. he omits the maternal grand-father and adds that the right can be exercised only when the guardian is not affected by lunacy and similar defects and that in the absence of these the girl should perform *svayamvara* (i. e. choose a husband herself). *Nārada* ¹¹⁶⁹

1168. प्रत्युद्वाहो नैव कार्यो नैकस्मै दुहितुद्वयम् । न चैकजातयोः पुंसोः प्रयच्छेद्वहितुद्वयम् ॥ स्मृतिह. (वर्णाश्रमधर्म p. 148) ; vide also सं. प्र. 725-26 quoting प्रयोग-पारिजात for similar verses ; सं. कौ. p. 694 quotes almost the same verse as नारद's. We know from the *Mahābhārata* *Adiparva* that Bhīṣma carried off the three daughters of the king of Kāśī for his *protégé* Vicitravīrya and got two of them married to him. Similarly the Sinda chief Cāvunḍa appears to have married Lakṣmīdevī and Siriyādevī, the two daughters of Kalacurya Bijjala, at the same time (E. I. vol. 20 pp. 109, 111, dated sake 1109).

1169. पिता दद्यात्स्वयं कन्यां भ्राता वा नुमते पितुः । पितामहो मातुलश्च सकुलया बान्धवास्तथा ॥ माता त्वभावे सर्वेषां प्रकृतौ यदि वर्तते । तस्यामप्रकृतिस्थायां द्यूः कन्यां सनाभयः । यदि तु नैव कश्चित्स्यात्कन्या राजानमाश्रयेत् । अनुज्ञया तस्य वरं प्रतीत्य वरयेत्स्वयम् ॥ नारद (क्रीडित 20-22).

(*śrīpūṃsa* verses 20-22) gives the order as father, brother (with father's consent), paternal grand-father, maternal uncle, agnates, cognates, mother (if sound in mind and body), then distant relations, then the maiden may perform *svayamvara* with the king's permission. To give away a girl in marriage was not only a right but was rather a heavy responsibility, as (*Yāj. I. 64*) and others declare that if a girl is not got married by the guardian at the proper time the latter incurs the sin of the murder of an embryo. The practice of *svayamvara* is well known from the *Rāmāyaṇa* and the *Mahābhārata*, but it was confined mostly to the princely families. *Manu* (IX. 90-91) required a girl to wait for three years after she became marriageable before she could choose her husband herself. But *Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 40* says that a girl should wait only for three monthly periods after she attains puberty and that after that period she has full power to dispose of herself in marriage as she thinks best.

There are no rules in the *smṛtis* as to who is to arrange the marriage of a male, since in ancient times they did not contemplate the marriages of minor males.

The mother has been put low in the order of guardians probably because of the dependent status assigned to women and because of the fact that in the ceremony of *kanyūdāna* she cannot personally engage but has to get it done through some male relative. The courts in modern India, however, have held that the mother is entitled to select a husband for her daughter, even when the girl's paternal grand-father is living, though the actual gift may be made by a male. Vide *Bai Ramkore v. Jamnadas*, I. L. R. 37 Bom. 18, where *Yāj. I. 63* is interpreted as only laying down who are to make a gift of the girl and as not intended to take away altogether the mother's right of selecting a bridegroom in favour of even distant relations. Vide also *Indi v. Ghania* (I. L. R. 1 Lahore 146), *Jawani v. Mula Ram* (I. L. R. 3 Lahore 29, where it was held that, after the father, the mother of a girl has the preferential right to select a bridegroom for her and that she is under no obligation to consult the girl's paternal kindred such as a paternal uncle), *Ranganaike v. Ramanuja* I. L. R. 35 Mad. 728, (where all the authorities are examined). The *Dharmasindhu* states the important proposition that when the girl performs *svayamvara* or when the mother is to give away the girl in marriage, the girl or mother should perform the *Nāndīśraddha* and the principal *samkalpa* is to be pronounced by her and the rest of the

rite is to be performed through a brāhmaṇa.¹¹⁷⁰ Nārada states the general rule that if anything is done by one who is afflicted with lunacy or similar defects, what he does is as if not done. So a marriage settled even by the father if he is a lunatic need not be performed.¹¹⁷¹ If an unauthorized person (like a maternal uncle) were to give away a girl in marriage though her father is alive and fit, what is the result? The digests state¹¹⁷² that if the marriage has been completed by the performance of *saptapadi*, it cannot be set aside merely on the ground of the want of authority in the giver, since marriage rites are the principal matter and the authority to give is a very subsidiary matter, the absence of which cannot affect the principal matter. But before the marriage takes place a person who wants to give away a girl, though persons better qualified exist, can be prevented from doing so. Courts in modern India have followed these rules, relying on the doctrine of '*factum valet quod fieri non debuit*' (what ought not to be done when done is valid) and holding that when once a marriage is duly solemnized and is otherwise valid, it is not rendered invalid because it was brought about without the consent of the proper guardian for marriage or in contravention of an express order of the court. Vide *Khushalchand v. Bai Mani* (I. L. R. 11 Bombay 247) and *Bai Diwali v. Moti* (I. L. R. 22 Bom. 509).

A few words must be said about the sale of girls in marriage. We read in the Maitrāyaṇīya S. I. 10. 11 'she indeed commits falsehood (or sin) who being purchased by her husband roams about with other males.'¹¹⁷² There is another passage of the Veda relied upon along with the above by the *pūrvapakṣa* (the plausible view-point) in Jaimini (VI. 1. 10-11) which denies that women have a right to

1170. कन्यास्वयंवरे मातुर्दातृत्वे च ताभ्यामेव नान्दीश्राद्धं कार्यं तत्र माता कन्या वा स्वयं प्रधानसङ्कल्पमात्रं कृत्वा अन्यद् ब्राह्मणद्वारा कारयेत् । धर्मसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 251. These words are taken from the: प्रयोगपरिजात; vide निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 306.

1171. यदाह नारदः । स्वतन्त्रोपि हि यत्कार्यं कुर्यादप्रकृतिं गतः । तदप्यकृतमेव स्याद-
रचातन्त्र्यस्य हेतुतः ॥ अपरार्क p. 92 on या. I. 63.

1171 a. यदि तु विवाहो निवृत्तस्तदा प्रधानस्य निष्पन्नत्वेनाधिकारवैकल्याच्च तस्य पुनरावृत्तिरिति । उद्गाहत्तव p. 127; यदि तु सप्तपदीविवाहोमादि प्रधानं जातं तदङ्ग-
वैकल्येनापि नावृत्तिर्विवाहस्य । गौडा अप्येवमाहुः । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्ध p. 307; vide also सं. र. मा. p. 497 to the same effect.

1172. कृतं वै सत्यं यज्ञोऽदृतं स्त्री अदृतं वा एषा करोति या पत्युः क्रीता सत्ययान्यैश्चरति । मैत्रा. सं. I. 10. 11.

take part in Vedic sacrifices, viz. 'one should give to the daughter's father a hundred (cows) plus a chariot,' Jaimini replies (VI. 1. 15) that the giving of a hundred with a chariot is not for purchasing a bride, but it is only a duty and a hundred must be offered as a present (whether the girl is beautiful or not).¹¹⁷³ This shows that, even if some girls were purchased for marriage in the times of the Maitrāyaṇīya S., there was a popular revulsion of sentiment about this practice and the sale of girls was severely condemned by the time of the sūtrakāras. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 6. 13. 10-11) also makes interesting remarks on this point¹¹⁷⁴ "there is no gift and the incidents of purchase about one's children; in marriage the gift ordained by Veda to be made to the daughter's father in the words 'therefore one should give a hundred (cows) besides a chariot to the girl's father and that (gift) should be made to belong to the (married) couple' is due to the desire (of the father to give a status to the daughter and her sons) and is meant as a fulfilment of duty (and not as a sale transaction). The word 'purchase' applied to such a transaction is merely figurative, since the relationship (as husband and wife) arises (not from the so called purchase but) from *dharma*." Vas. Dh. S. (I. 36-37) quotes the two passages of the Veda (from Mait. S. and the other about the gift of one hundred cows) in support of the Mānuṣa (i. e. Āsura) form of marriage. The Nirukta VI. 9¹¹⁷⁵ while explaining Rg. I. 109. 2 ('O Indra and Agni, I have heard you to be greater donors than a partially fit son-in-law or a brother-in-law') remarks that "the word 'vijāmātā' means among the southerners the husband of a woman who is purchased; what is meant is that he is a

1173. शबर on जै. VI. 1. 10 puts the पूर्वपक्ष view as 'क्रयविक्रयसंयुक्ता हि स्त्रियः। पित्रा विक्रीयन्ते भर्त्रा क्रीयन्तेः विक्रयो हि श्रूयते 'शतमतिरथं दुहितृमते दद्यात्।' &c. and on जै. VI. 1. 11 he says 'या पत्या क्रीता सत्यथान्यैश्चरतीति क्रीततां दर्शयति'. क्रयस्य धर्ममात्रत्वम्। जै. VI. 1. 15; शबर 'यत्तु क्रयः श्रूयते धर्ममात्रं तु तत्। नासौ क्रय इति। नियतं त्विदं दानम्। शतमतिरथं शोभनामशोभनां च कन्यां प्रति।'.

1174. दानं क्रयधर्मश्चापस्य न विद्यते। विवाहे दुहितृमते दानं काम्यं धर्मार्थं श्रूयते तस्माद् दुहितृमतेऽतिरथं शतं देयं तन्मिथुया कुर्यादिति तस्यां क्रयशब्दः संस्तुतिमात्रं धर्माद्वि संबन्धः। आप. ध. सूत्र. II. 6. 13. 10-11. The words तन्मिथुया कुर्यात् are translated in S.B.E. II. p. 132 as 'that gift he should make bootless (by returning it to the giver)'.

1175. अश्वं हि धूरिदावत्तरा वां विजामातुस्त वा वा स्यालात्। (ऋ. I. 109. 2)... अश्वोपि हि बहुदातृवरौ वां विजामातुः अमुसमाप्ताजामातुः। विजामाता इति शब्दश्च दाक्षिणाजाः क्रीतापतिमाचक्षते। अमुसमाप्त इव वरोऽभिप्रेतः। निरुक्त VI. 9.

bridegroom who is deficient and not endowed with all good qualities." So Yāska implies that in the south girls were sold for substantial sums of money to persons who (either because they were old or wanting in some qualities desirable in a good bridegroom) were therefore really deficient as bridegrooms. In the Nirukta (III. 4) while discussing the several views about the obscure verse of the R̥gveda III. 31. 1 (śāsad-vahnir &c.) one of the reasons assigned for the view that women do not inherit is that gift, sale and abandonment in the case of women exist, but not in the case of men, to which some reply that these (gift, sale &c.) can be made of males also as is seen in the story of Śunaḥśepa (in the Ait. Br. 33, Tai. S. V. 2. 1. 3, Tai. Br. I. 7. 10.).

These passages lead to the inference that in ancient times girls were sometimes purchased for marriage, as was the case in many other countries. But gradually public feeling entirely changed and not only was the sale of daughters by the father or brother severely condemned, but even taking of presents by them was looked down upon. Āp. Dh. S. has already been quoted above (note 1174). The Baud. Dh. S. (I. 11. 20-21)¹¹⁷⁶ quotes two verses 'that woman who is purchased with wealth is not declared to be a legally wedded wife (a *patnī*); she is not (to be associated with the husband) in rites for the gods or manes and Kāśyapa declares that she is a *dāsi* (slave girl). Those, who, blinded by greed, give their daughters in marriage for a fee (*śulka*), are sinners, sellers of their own selves and perpetrators of great sin and they fall into hell &c.' In another place Baud. says 'he who gives his daughter (in marriage) by sale (as a chattel) sells his merit (*puṇya*)'. Manu (III. 51, 54-55) strikes¹¹⁷⁷ a tender note about daughters when he says 'a father should not take even the smallest gratuity for his daughter; if he takes a gratuity through greed he becomes the seller of his child; when relations do not take for themselves wealth given by the bridegroom as gratuity (but hand it over to the girl) there is no sale (of the girl); the wealth so taken is for

1176. अथाप्युदाहरन्ति । क्रीता द्रव्येण वा नारी सा न पत्नी विधीयते । सा न दैवे न सा पित्र्ये दासी तां कश्यपोब्रवीत् ॥ सुल्केन ये प्रयच्छन्ति स्वसुतां लोभमोहिताः । आत्मवि-
क्रयिणो पापा महाकिल्बिषकारकाः ॥ पतन्ति नरको घोरे हन्ति चासत्तमं कुलम् । बौ. ध. सू.
I. 11. 20-22; सुकृतांशान्वा एव विक्रीणीति यः पणमानोः दुहितरं ददाति । बौ. ध. सू.
II. 1. 79.

1177. अनुशासन 46. 2-3 are the same as मनु III. 54-55.

honouring the maidens and is only taken from the bridegroom out of loving concern for them. Fathers, brothers, husbands and brothers-in-law desiring their own welfare should honour women and should give them ornaments'. Manu (IX. 98) further recommends that 'even a śūdra should not take a gratuity when giving his daughter (in marriage), since in taking a gratuity he clandestinely sells his daughter'. Yāj. III. 236, Manu XI. 61 include the sale of children among upapātakas. The Mahābhārata (Anuśāsana 93.133 and 94.3) condemns the taking of a gratuity for giving a girl and Anuśāsana (45.18-19) speaks of *gāthās* of Yama contained in dharmaśāstras 'whoever sells his son for a price, or gives a daughter for the sake of his own livelihood in return for a gratuity, would fall into a most horrible hell called Kālasūtra'. Verse 23 of the same chapter says 'even a stranger cannot be sold, what of one's own children'. Verse 20 (= Manu III. 53) condemns even the *ārṣa* form of marriage as a sale because a pair of cattle is therein taken by the girl's father. In Kerala or Malabar it is believed that the great teacher Śaṅkara laid down 64 *ācāras*, among which are prohibition of the sale of girls, prohibition of *satī* &c. Vide I. A. vol. IV, pp. 255-256 and also Atri v. 389 and Āp. (in verse) IX. 25 (ed. by Jivānanda). This practice, however, persisted till modern times. For example, in an inscription dated about 1425¹¹⁷⁸ A. D. from Paḍaiviḍu (North Arcot District) we find an agreement signed by the representatives of Kārṇāṭa, Tamil, Telugu and Lāṭa (South Gujarat) brāhmaṇas that they would give up taking gold for their daughters and get them married by the simple *kanyādāna* (the Brāhma form) and that the father who accepted gold and the bridegroom who paid gold were to be punished by the king and were to be excommunicated from the brāhmaṇa caste. The Peshwa¹¹⁷⁹ issued orders (about 1800 A. D.) addressed to the brāhmaṇas of Wai (in the Satara District) forbidding them to take money for giving their daughters in marriage and prescribing fines for the father

1178. Vide South Indian Inscriptions (ed. by Hultzsch, 1890) No. 56.

1179. Vide काव्येतिहाससंग्रह, पत्रे यादी No. 145, pp. 121-122 (of first edition) and No. 470 p 425 (of the 2nd edition of 1930). The most important portion is set out here 'मान्त वार्ह येथे ब्राह्मण ज्ञातींत कोणी कन्येचे रुपये घेऊन विवाह करूं नये, जो कन्येचा ऐवज घेईल त्याजपासून दुप्पट व जो देईल त्यानें कन्येचे बापास रुपये दिले असतील तितके व मध्यस्ती करून पैका घेईल तो ऐवज त्याजपासून सरकारांत घेतला जाईल. याप्रमाणें ज्ञातीस व जमींदार व धर्माधिकारी व उपाध्ये जोशी व पाटील कुलकर्णी यांस निश्चून ताकीद करावी'.

who took money, for the giver and the intermediary who brought about the marriage. Among certain castes and among the śūdras even now money or money's worth is often taken when a daughter is married, but generally the money is meant as a provision for the girl and for defraying the expenses of the girl's father.

The question of the sale of girls in marriage has been from the remotest ages bound up with the question of the father's power over his children. Rg. I. 116. 16¹¹⁸⁰ and I. 117. 17 refer to the story of Rjraśva who was deprived of his eye-sight by his father because the former gave a hundred rams to a she-wolf. The verses refer to some natural phenomena under a metaphorical garb and cannot be used for drawing the inference that a father could in law deprive his son of eye-sight at his will. The story of Śunaḥśepa (Ait. Br. 33) shows that in rare cases the father did sell his son. The passage of the Nirukta about the power to sell, to gift away or to abandon daughters has been already cited (p. 505). The Vas. Dh. S.¹¹⁸¹ (XVII. 30-31) says 'Śunaḥśepa is an example of the son bought' (one of the twelve kinds of sons). The same sūtra (XVII. 36-37) defines the *apavidḍha* kind of son as one, who being cast off by his parents, is accepted (as a son) by another. Manu IX. 171 also defines the 'apavidḍha' in the same way. Vas. Dh. S. (XV. 1-3) propounds the absolute power of the parents over their children in the words 'man produced from seed and uterine blood springs from the father and the mother; (therefore) the parents have power to give, to sell or to abandon him; but one should not give nor accept an only son'. Here Vas. states the right of *patria potestas* several centuries before Justinian, who makes the vain boast (Institutes, Lib. I. Tit. IX. 2) that 'no other people have a power over their children such as we have over ours'. Manu (VIII. 416) and the Mahābhārata¹¹⁸² (Udyoga 33. 64) both state that the wife, the son and the slave are without wealth and that whatever they acquire belongs to him whose they are. Manu (in V. 152) says that 'gift (by the father of the bride) is the source of (the husband's) ownership (over her)'. But gradually the

1180. इतं मेषान्वुक्ते चक्षदानमुज्जाश्वं तं पितान्धं चकार। ऋ. I. 116. 16.

1181. क्रीतस्तुवीयः। तच्छुनःशेपेन व्याख्यातम्। अपविद्धः पञ्चमः। यं माता पितृभ्यामपास्तं गृह्णीयात्। वसिष्ठ XVII. 30-31 and 36-37.

1182. Śabara on जे. VI. 1. 12 quotes the verse भार्या दासश्च पुत्रश्च निर्धनाः सर्व एव ते, which is almost the same as Manu VIII. 416. Compare Nārada VIII. 41.

rigour of the father's power was lessened by other competing considerations such as the ideas that the son was the father himself born again, and that the son conferred great spiritual benefit on the souls of the father and his ancestors by the balls of rice offered in *śrāddha*. So gradually the father's power over the son became restricted. Kautilya (III. 13) gives the interesting information that *mlecchas* incur no blame by selling or pledging their children, but an *ārya* cannot be reduced to the state of slavery. Yāj. II. 175 and Nārada (dattāpradānika 4) both forbid the gift of one's son or wife. Kātyāyana¹¹⁸³ says that though the father has powers of control over the wife and the son, he has not the power to sell or make a gift of his son. Yāj. (II. 118-119) modified the rule about the son's acquisitions also. Manu VIII. 389 prescribes a fine of 600 *paṇas* for abandoning one's mother, father, wife or son when they are not sinners. Vide Yāj. II. 237, Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 113-114, Kautilya III. 20 (p. 199) for a similar provision. Manu (VIII. 299-300) restricted a man's power to award corporal punishment for misconduct to his wife, son or slave to striking with a rope or a thin piece of bamboo.

One question discussed by dharmasūtra writers is whether one has ownership over one's wife and children. In Jaimini¹¹⁸⁴ (VI. 7. 1-2) it is decided that in the *Viśvajit* sacrifice where one is to give away all that one has, one cannot give away one's parents and other relatives as one can make a gift only of what one is master of. The Mit. on Yāj. II. 175 says 'though one cannot make a gift of one's wife or child to another, one is still owner of them.' The *Vīramitrodaya*¹¹⁸⁵ (*vyavahāra* p. 567) is of the same opinion. On the other hand the *Tantraratna* (of Pārthasārathimīśra) says that the word gift with reference to the son and the like is used only in a secondary sense viz. that of passing to another the power of control over the son

1183. सुतस्य सुतदाराणां वशित्वं त्वज्ज्ञासने । विक्रये चैव दाने च वशित्वं न सुते पितुः । कात्यायन quoted in स्मृतिच० (च. p. 132) and परा. म. III. p. 219.

1184. स्वदाने सर्वमविक्रमात् । यस्य वा प्रभुः स्यादितरस्याज्ञक्यत्वात् । जै. VI. 7. 1-2. शबर says तस्मान्न पित्रादयो देयाः । तस्माद्यत्रैव प्रभुत्वयोगेन स्वत्वं तदेव देयमिति ।

1185. एतद्देयत्वमात्राभिप्रायेण न पुनः स्वत्वाभावाभिप्रायेण । पुत्रदारसर्वस्वप्रतिश्रुतेषु स्वत्वस्य सद्भावात् । मिता० on या. II. 175; अत एव पुत्रकन्यादानादिविधयो मुख्यार्थो एव न पुत्रादिपरतन्त्रीकरणरूपयोगदानाद्यर्थः । वीरमित्रोदय p. 567 (Jiv. व्यवहार); गवादाविव भार्यायां स्वत्वाभावेन तस्यामुत्पत्तेः इत्ये तद्भावात् । च. म. p. 92 (my edition).

or the daughter. The Vyavahāramayūkha is also of the same opinion.

A few words may be said about infanticide. Westermarck in his 'Origin and Development of Moral Ideas' vol. I. (1906) pp. 393-413 furnishes an exhaustive account of this practice in ancient and modern times among barbarous and civilised communities from various countries, e. g. in Sparta (for the purpose of securing strong and healthy fighters), among the Rajputs (from family pride and fear of the crushing burden of expenses at marriage).¹¹⁸⁶ He is wrong in saying that in the Vedic times infanticide or exposure of children was practised. Rg. II. 29. 1¹¹⁸⁷ is of no use on this point; it says 'cast off from me sin as a woman who secretly gives birth to a child (casts it off).' This is not a reference to infanticide of children born in wedlock, but refers to the exposure of a child by an unmarried woman which is clandestinely practised everywhere and as regards which even in England a very lenient attitude is shown as manifested by the passing of the Infanticide Act (12 and 13 Geo. V. Chap. 18). The most important passage on which some European scholars like Zimmer and Delbrück rely upon for this proposition is Tai. S. VI. 5. 10. 3 'They go to the *avabhṛtha*¹¹⁸⁸ (the final sacrificial bath); they keep aside the *sthālis* (pots) and take up the vessels for *vāyu*: therefore they (the people) keep aside the girl when she is born and lift up (i. e. greet with pride and joy) the son'. This simply refers to the fact that a daughter was not greeted as much as the son. It has nothing to do with exposure or infanticide. That passage only expresses the sentiment contained in the Ait. Br.¹¹⁸⁹ (33. 1)

1186. Vide Tod's 'Annals and antiquities of Rājasthān' (Calcutta edition) vol. I. pp. 659-665 (for infanticide among Rajputs), 'Indian Infanticide' by J. C. Browne (1857), Dr. John Wilson's 'History of the suppression of infanticide in Western India' (1855) in which he refers at length to a prize-essay of Dr. Bhau Daji, written in 1844. Winternitz 'Die Frau' pp. 24-25. Vide the Female Infanticide Prevention Act VIII. of 1873 (in India)

1187. अरे मत्कर्त रहस्यनिगः । ऋ. II. 29. 1.

1188. अवभृथमवयन्ति परा स्थालीरस्यन्ति उद्वायव्यानि हरन्ति तस्मात् स्त्रियं जातां परास्यन्ति उत्तुमांसं हरन्ति । तै. सं VI. 5. 10. 3. The निरुक्त III. 4 quotes this last sentence. Vide Vedic Index, vol. I. p. 487 for references to the views of Zimmer and others.

1189. सखा ह जाया कृपणं हि दुहिता ज्योतिर्ह पुत्रः परमे स्थोमन् । ऐ. ब्रा. 33. 1. आत्मा पुत्रः सखा भार्या कृच्छ्रं तु दुहिता किल । आदिपर्व 159. 11. Compare मनु IV. 184-185 'भार्या पुत्रः स्वका तनुः ॥ जाया स्वो दासवर्गश्च दुहिता कृपणं परम् ।

'the wife is indeed a friend, the daughter is distress (or humiliation), the son is light in the highest heaven'. The Mahābhārata (Ādi. 159. 11) in a similar vein says 'the son is one's self, the wife is one's friend, but the daughter is indeed a difficulty'. But all the same the Gr̥hyasūtras like Āp. (15. 13) call upon the father to greet his daughter also with a mantra when he returned from a journey, the difference being that in the case of the son there is kissing of the son's head and muttering of certain mantras in his right ear. Manu (IX. 232) advises the king to award death sentence to him who kills a woman, a child or a brāhmaṇa. Manu IX. 130 (= Anuśāsana 45. 11) expressly says that 'just as the son is one's own self, so is the daughter like the son; how can another person take the wealth (of the deceased) when his daughter who is his own self is there to take it'? Nārada¹¹⁹⁰ (dāyabhāga v. 50) reasons that both the son and the daughter continue the line of the father and therefore in the absence of the son the daughter succeeds as heir. Br̥haspati exclaims 'the daughter is born from the limbs of the parents as much as the son; when she is alive how can another take her father's estate'? Bāṇa, who as a great poet had unparalleled sympathy with the emotions and feelings of the average man, makes even the king Prabhākara-vardhana say about his daughter what every Indian father has felt for thousands of years 'this rule of law laid down by some one viz. that one's own children (daughters) sprung from one's body, fondled on one's knees and whom one would never forsake, are taken away all of a sudden by persons (husbands) who till then were quite unfamiliar. It is on account of this sorrow that although both (son and daughter) are one's own children the good feel sorrow when a daughter is born and who offer water in the form of tears to their daughters at the very time of their birth'. A daughter was not greeted at birth, not because the father had no love for her, but because

1190. पुत्राभावे तु दुहिता तुल्यसंतानदर्शनात् । पुत्रश्च दुहिता चोभौ पितुः संतान-
कारकौ ॥ नारद (दायभाग 50); अङ्गादङ्गात् संभवति पुत्रवदुहिता दृष्ट्याम् । तस्यां पितृधनं
त्वयः कथं गृह्णीत मानवः ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by अपरार्क p. 743; केनापि कृता धर्म्या
नाभिमता मे स्थितिरियं यदङ्गसंभूतान्यङ्गललितान्यपरित्याज्यान्यपर्यकान्यकाण्ड एवा-
गत्यासंस्तुतैनीयन्ते । ... यदुपरत्यत्वे समानेऽपि दूयन्ते सन्तः । एतदर्थं जन्मकाल एव कन्य-
काभ्यः प्रयच्छन्ति सलिलमश्रुभिः साधवः । हर्षचरित 4th Uccvāsa. कन्यापितृत्वं दुःखं
हि सर्वेषां मानकाङ्क्षिणाम् । न ज्ञायते च कः कन्यां वरयेदिति कन्यके ॥ मातुः कुलं पितृकुलं
यत्र चैव च दीयते । कुलत्रयं सदा कन्या संशये स्थाप्य तिष्ठति ॥ रामायण (उत्तरकाण्ड
9. 10-11.). उद्योगपर्व 97. 16 has मातुःकुलं कुलत्रयं संशयितं कुरुते कन्यका
सत्ताम् ।

he felt that a daughter meant a source of anxiety all her life to him. It was the great concern felt for a daughter's well-being in life and her character that made the parents anxious that no daughter be born to them. Society expected a very high moral rectitude from women and treated lapses of men with leniency. This is finely expressed in the *Rāmāyaṇa* (*Uttara-kāṇḍa* 9.10-11). Ancient literature did not everywhere treat women with scorn and contempt. It has already been shown how highly the wife was regarded even in the most ancient days as a man's half. *Rg.* III. 53. 4 speaks of the wife as a haven of rest (*jāyed-astam*). The *Chān. Up.*¹¹⁹¹ looks upon the sight of a woman in a dream as very auspicious and as prognosticating success in religious rites already undertaken. Manu (III. 56 = *Anuśāsana* 46. 5), though he has said, as will be shown later on, some very hard things about women, was not unmindful of the honour due to them and says in a chivalrous spirit 'where women are honoured there the gods love to reside; where they are not honoured, there all religious acts come to nought.' Maidens were regarded as pure (vide p. 296 above) and auspicious. When the king passed through his capital it was customary to greet him with fried grain showered by maidens (*Raghuvamśa* II.10). The *Śaunaka-kārikā*¹¹⁹² (ms. in Bombay University Library folio 22 b) includes a maiden among the eight objects which were auspicious. The *Dronaparva* (82. 20-22) mentions numerous objects which Arjuna looked at and touched as auspicious when starting for battle, among which well-decked maidens are mentioned. *Gobhila-smṛti* II. 163 says that one that sees on rising from bed in the morning among others a woman whose husband is living is free from all difficulties. The *Vāmana-purāṇa* (14. 35-36) mentions several objects which are auspicious when one is about to leave home, among which figure *brāhmaṇa* maidens. Vide *Sm. C. I.* p. 168.

Some remarks must be made about the times auspicious for marriage. In the marriage hymn (*Rgveda*¹¹⁹³ X. 85. 13) the

1191. स यदि स्त्रियं पश्येत्समृद्धं कर्मेति विद्यात् । तदेष श्लोकः । यदा कर्मसु काम्येषु स्त्रियं स्वप्नेषु पश्यति । समृद्धिं तत्र जानीयात्तस्मिन् स्वप्निदर्शने ॥ छान्दोग्य V. 2. 7-8. This passage is the basis of वेदान्तसूत्र III. 2. 4.

1192. दर्पणः पूर्णकलशः कन्या सुमन्तोऽक्षताः । दीपमाला ध्वजा लाजाः संशोक्तं चाष्टमङ्गलम् ॥ शौनकाकारिका.

1193. अवाप्तु हन्यन्ते गावो फल्गुन्योः पर्युह्यते । ऋ. X. 85. 13 and अथर्व XIV. 1. 13. कौशिकसूत्र 75. 5 quotes these words. मवाभिर्गावो युह्यन्ते । फल्गुनीभ्यां व्युह्यते । आप. गृ. 3. 1-2.

words occur 'the cows are killed on the Aghās and (the bride) is carried away (from her father's house) on the Phalgunis'. The cow was killed in Madhuparka which was offered to the bridegroom on the day of marriage. Or this may be a reference to the giving of cows by the bridegroom to the bride's father (as in the form later called *ārṣa*). So it appears probable that this is a reference to marriage being performed on the day when the moon was in conjunction with the constellation of Aghās (i. e. Maghā). The two Phalgunis follow immediately after the Maghā nakṣatra. There is an echo of this in the Āp. gr. III, 1-2 which says 'cows are accepted on the Maghās and (the bride) is carried (to the bridegroom's house) on the Phalgunis'. This means that the marriage (probably in the *ārṣa* form) is celebrated on the Maghās and the bride goes from her father's house on the next day after marriage or after one day more. The Āśv. gr. (I. 4. 1) says ¹¹⁹⁴ that 'in the northward passage of the sun, in the bright half of a month and on an auspicious lunar mansion, caula, upanayana, godāna and marriage are to be performed and that according to some teachers marriage may be celebrated at all times' (not necessarily in northward passage &c). The Āp. gr. (2. 12-13) prescribes that all seasons except the two months of Śīsira (i. e. Māgha and Phālguna) and the last of the two months of summer (viz. Aṣāḍha) are fit for marriage and all nakṣatras which are declared to be auspicious (or holy). Āp. gr. further ¹¹⁹⁵ adds (3. 3) 'a father who desires that his daughter should be dear (to her husband) should give her in marriage on the Niṣṭyā (i. e. Svāti constellation); thus she becomes dear (to her husband), she does not return (to her parent's house); this is a procedure based upon the Brāhmaṇa passage.' The Brāhmaṇa passage is Tai. Br. I. 5, 2. The Baud. gr. (I. 1. 18-19) is the same ¹¹⁹⁶ as Āp. gr. about months and adds that the nakṣatras for marriage are Rohiṇī, Mṛgaśīrṣa, Uttarā Phalgunī, Svāti; while Punarvasu,

1194. उदगयन आपूर्यमाणपक्षे कल्याणे नक्षत्रे चैलकर्मपिनयनगोदानविवाहाः । सार्वकालमेके विवाहश्च । आश्व. गृ. I. 4. 1-2; शाङ्खायनशुद्धा I. 5. 5 is to the same effect.

1195. यां कामयेव दुहितरं मिया स्यादिति तां निष्ठयायां दद्यात् मियैव भवति नैव तु पुनरागच्छति इति ब्राह्मणावेक्षो विधिः । आप. गृ. 3. 3. The words यां...गच्छति occur in तै. ब्रा. I. 5. 2. भरद्वाजगृ. I. 12. quotes the ब्राह्मणवाक्य.

1196. सर्वे मासा विवाहस्य । छुचितपस्तपस्यवर्जमित्येके । रोहिणी शुक्लार्धहस्तरे फल्गुनी स्वातीति विवाहस्य नक्षत्राणि । पुनर्वसु तिष्यो हस्तः श्रोगा रेवतीत्यन्येषां भूतिकर्मणाम् । चौ. गृ. I. 1. 18-21.

Tīśya (Puśya), Hasta, Śravana and Revati are suitable for other ceremonies of an auspicious character. The Mānava gr. (I. 7. 5) says that the nakṣatras Rohini, Mṛgaśīras, Śravana, Śraviṣṭhā (Dhaniṣṭhā) and the Uttarās (i. e. Uttarāṣādhā, Uttarā Phalgunī and Uttarā Bhādrapadā) are fit for marriage and for taking the bride from her parent's house and whatever other (nakṣatra) is declared to be auspicious. Kāṭhaka gr. 14. 9-10 and Vārāha gr. 10 are similar. The Rāmāyaṇa¹¹⁹⁷ (Bālakāṇḍa 72. 13 and 71. 24) speaks of marriage being performed on Uttarā Phalgunī, of which Bhaga is the deity. The Mahābhārata also speaks of marriage on a nakṣatra presided over by Bhaga (Ādiparva 8. 16). The Kauśika sūtra (75. 2-4) makes an approach to modern practice when it prescribes that marriage should be celebrated after the full moon of Kārtika and up to the full moon of Vaiśākha or one may do as one likes but should avoid the month or half month of Caitra.¹¹⁹⁸

Medieval digests introduce many detailed rules derived from astrology which it is not possible to set out here. A few only will be indicated. The Udvāhatattva (p. 124) quotes Rājamārtanda¹¹⁹⁹ and Bhuja-balabhīma to the effect that all months are auspicious for marriage except Caitra and Pauṣa and that when a girl is very much grown-up one should not wait for auspicious seasons, but she should be given away on any day when the moon and the zodiacal sign rising at the moment of marriage are favourable, and that one should go into questions of auspicious *ayana*, month, day &c. up to only the tenth year of girls. The Saṁskāraratnamālā (p. 460) says that as there is conflict among the dicta of sūtra and smṛti

1197. मघा ह्यद्य महाबाहो तृतीये दिवसे प्रभो । फल्गुन्यामुत्तरे राजस्तस्मिन्वैवाहिकं कुरु ॥ उत्तरे दिवसे ब्रह्मन् फल्गुनीभ्यां मनीषिणः । वैवाहिकं प्रशंसन्ति भगो यत्र प्रजापतिः ॥ बालकाण्ड 71. 24 and 72. 13. According to the तै. ब्रा. I. 1. 2. मग is the देवता of उत्तराफल्गुनी.

1198. ऊर्ध्वं कार्तिक्या आ वैशाख्याः । याथाकामी वा । चित्रापक्षं तु वर्जयेत् । कौशिकसूत्र 75. 2-4.

1199. राजमार्तण्डीये । राजग्रस्ते तथा शुद्धे पितृणां प्राणसंशये । अतिप्रौढा च या कन्या नास्तु कूल्यं प्रतीक्षते । अतिवृद्धा च या कन्या कुलधर्मविरोधिनी । अविशुद्धापि सा देया चन्द्रलग्नबलेन तु । भुजबलभीमे । ग्रहशुद्धिमब्दशुद्धिं शुद्धिं मासायनर्तुदिवसानाम् । अर्वाक्ष-दशवर्षयो मुनयः कथयन्ति कन्यकानाम् । दशवर्षाभ्यन्तरे शुद्धौ गृहाद्वादीनां विशेषोपादानात् तदूर्ध्वं तावन्मात्रानियमः । अत्रैव विषये 'मङ्गल्येषु विवाहेषु कन्यासंवरणेषु च । दशमासाः प्रशस्यन्ते चैत्रपौषविवर्जिताः' इति राजमार्तण्डोक्तम् । उद्वाहतत्त्व p. 124.

writers about months one should follow the usage of one's country. One should not celebrate the marriage of the eldest son with the eldest daughter of a man in the month of Jyestha (or on Jyesthā nakṣatra) nor should one celebrate a marriage in the month of birth or on the day of birth or nakṣatra of birth (of the eldest son or daughter). Wednesday, Monday, Friday and Thursday are the best days of the week, but the Madana-pārijāta says that any day is good if the marriage is celebrated at night.¹²⁰⁰ In marriage the moon must be in a strong position for girls. One should avoid Jupiter being the 4th, 8th or 12th from one's rāśi (zodiacal sign in which the moon was at the time of birth). The Nirṇayasindhu quotes a verse that when the girl has reached puberty, then one should not wait till Jupiter is favourable, but marriage should be performed even when Jupiter is 8th from the zodiacal sign of birth, propitiatory rites however being performed for Jupiter.¹²⁰¹ Upanayana and marriage cannot be performed when Jupiter is in the zodiacal sign called Leo (Simha), but this applies only to the tract between the river Godāvarī and the Ganges.¹²⁰² From the nakṣatra and zodiacal sign at the time of birth (in the case of both the girl and the bridegroom) certain astrological calculations were made in eight ways¹²⁰³ called kūṭas. They were Varṇa, Vāśya, Nakṣatra, Yoni, Graha (planets governing the twelve rāśis), Gaṇa, Rāśi, and Nāḍī, each later one of which was more powerful than each preceding one and marks (guṇa) from 1 to 8 were respectively assigned to each of these if the conditions laid down were satisfied. Two of these viz. gaṇa and nāḍī are attached great importance even now among brāhmanas and other classes also and so they may be illustrated here, though very briefly. The 27 nakṣatras are arranged in three groups of nine each, each group being assigned to Deva-gaṇa, Manuṣyagaṇa and Rākṣasagaṇa as follows:

1200. सं. र. मा. p. 464 न वारदोषाः प्रभवन्ति रात्रौ इति मदनपारिजाते.

1201. रजस्वलायाः कन्याया गुरुशुद्धिं न चिन्तयेत्। अष्टमेपि प्रकर्तव्यो विवाह-
श्रियुगार्चनात् ॥ निर्णयसिन्धु III Pūrvārdha p. 304.

1202. लघुः। गोदावर्धुत्तरतो यावद्भागीरथीतटं याम्यम्। तत्र विवाहो नेष्टः सिंहस्थे
देवपतिपूज्ये ॥ भागीरथ्युत्तरे कूले गौतम्या दक्षिणे तथा। विवाहो व्रतबन्धो वा सिंह-
स्थेन्ये न दुष्यति। इति वसिष्ठेन गङ्गागोदान्तरालातिरिक्तदेशे विवाहव्रतबन्धयोरेभ्यस्तुज्ञानात्।
सं. प्र. p. 806.

1203. See सं. प्र. p. 773 ff. and सं. र. मा. 519 ff. for कूटाः.

Devagana	Manuṣyagana	Rākṣasagana
Āśvini	Bharani	Kṛttikā
Mṛgaśiras	Rohini	Āśleṣā
Punarvasu	Ārdṛā	Maghā
Puṣya	Pūrvā	Citrā
Hasta	Uttarā	Viśākhā
Svāti	Pūrvāṣādhā	Jyeṣṭhā
Anurādhā	Uttarāṣādhā	Mūla
Śravaṇa	Pūrvābhādrapadā	Dhanīṣṭhā
Revati	Uttarābhādrapadā	Śatatārakā

If the bride and bridegroom are born on nakṣatras that belong to the same class out of these three groups it is the best thing but if their nakṣatras of birth belong to different groups, then the rules are: it is middling if their nakṣatras belong to the deva group or the human group respectively, or if the bridegroom's nakṣatra being of the devagana or rākṣasagana, the bride's is of the manuṣyagana, while if the nakṣatra of the bride is of the rākṣasa group and the bridegroom's of the manuṣya type, then death would result. Similarly if the nakṣatras of the pair respectively belong to the deva and rākṣasa groups, there would be quarrels and enmity between the two.

For the purpose of nāḍi the nakṣatras are divided into three groups of nine each, ādyanāḍi, madhyanāḍi and antyanāḍi, as follows:

Ādyanāḍi	Madhyanāḍi	Antyanāḍi
Āśvini	Bharani	Kṛttikā
Ārdṛā	Mṛgaśiras	Rohini
Punarvasu	Puṣya	Āśleṣā
Uttarā	Pūrvā	Maghā
Hasta	Citrā	Svāti
Jyeṣṭhā	Anurādhā	Viśākhā
Mūla	Pūrvāṣādhā	Uttarāṣādhā
Śatatārakā	Dhanīṣṭhā	Śravaṇa
Pūrvābhādrapadā	Uttarābhādrapadā	Revati

If the nakṣatras of the intended pair belong to the same nāḍi, then that portends death and so there is to be no marriage in such a case. The respective nakṣatras of birth in the case of the two should belong to different nāḍis.

The anxieties of the girls' father did not end here. If after the marriage was settled but before it actually took place any relative in any of the two families died, then the marriage agreement was to be broken off according to some writers, but Śaunaka¹²⁰⁴ mercifully states a more sensible and reasonable rule viz. if the father or mother or paternal grand-father or paternal grand-mother or paternal uncle, brother or unmarried sister of the intended bride or bridegroom dies, or the bridegroom's first wife or his son from another wife dies, then only it is *pratikūla* and the marriage should not be performed, but the death of any one else presents no obstacle.

If before the rites of marriage begin (i. e. before the performance of *nāndīśrāddha*), the mother of the bride or of the bride-groom has her monthly illness then the marriage has to be postponed till she becomes pure (till the fifth day after the illness).

Forms of marriage: From the times of the *gṛhya sūtras*, *dharmaśāstras* and *smṛtis* the forms of marriage are said to be eight, viz. *Brāhma*, *Prājāpatya*, *Ārṣa*, *Daiva*, *Gāndharva*, *Āsura*, *Rākṣasa* and *Paiśāca* (vide *Āśv. gr. I. 6*, *Gaut. IV. 6-13*, *Baud. Dh. S. I. 11*, *Manu III. 21* = *Ādi-parva 73. 8-9*), *Viṣṇu Dh. S. 24. 18-19*, *Yāj. I. 58*, *Nārada (śrīpūrṇa, verses 38-39)*, *Kauṭilya III. 1*, 59th *prakarana*, *Ādi-parva 102. 12-15* (they are described but not named); some of these arrange the first four differently, e. g. *Āśv. gr.* arranges them as *Brāhma*, *Daiva*, *Prājāpatya* and *Ārṣa*, while *Viṣṇu* arranges them as *Brāhma*, *Daiva*, *Ārṣa* and *Prājāpatya*; *Āśv. gr. I. 6* places *Paiśāca* before *Rākṣasa*. The *Mānava gr.* speaks of only two *Brāhma* and *Śaulka* (i. e. *Āsura*), probably because these two were the forms most current. *Āp. Dh. S. (II. 5. 11. 17-20—II. 5. 12. 1-2)* speaks of only six, omitting *Prājāpatya* and *Paiśāca*; while *Vas. Dh. S. I. 28-29* expressly says that there are only six forms of marriage viz. *Brāhma*, *Daiva*, *Ārṣa*, *Gāndharva*, *Kṣātra* and *Mānuṣa* (the last two being the same as *Rākṣasa* and *Āsura*). It is impossible for want of space to set out the various definitions of the several forms given by the several authors. There is general agreement on the special characteristics of each and it is sufficient to point out these as given in *Manu III. 27-34*.

1204. शौनकः । पिता पितामहश्चैव माता चैव पितृमही । पितृव्यः स्त्री सुतो भ्राता भगिनी चाविवाहिता । एभिरेव विपक्षे प्रतिकूलं दुष्टैः स्मृतम् । अन्यैरपि विपक्षेस्तु केचिद्दुर्न तद्भवेत् । निर्णयसिन्धु III पूर्वार्धे p. 311.

The gift of a daughter, after decking her (with valuable garments) and honouring her (with jewels &c.), to a man learned in the Vedas and of good conduct, whom the father of the girl himself invites, is called Brāhma. When the father gives away his daughter after decking her (with ornaments &c.) to a priest, who duly officiates at a sacrifice, during the course of its performance, it is the Daiva form.¹²⁰⁵ When there is a gift of one's daughter, after taking one pair of cattle (a cow and a bull) or two pairs only as a matter of fulfilling the law (and not as a sale of the girl), that is named the āṛṣa form. The gift of a daughter, after the father has addressed (the couple with the words 'may both of you perform your religious duties together') and after he has honoured the bride-groom (with Madhuparka &c.), is declared to constitute the Prājāpatya form. Yāj. I. 60 calls this 'kāya', because in the Brāhmaṇa works 'ka' means 'Prajāpati'. When the girl is given away at the father's will after the bride-groom gives as much wealth as he can afford to pay to the relatives of the girl and to the girl herself, that is called the Āsura form. The union of a girl and the bride-groom by their mutual consent is known as Gāndharva, which springs from the passion of love and has intercourse as its purpose. The forcible abduction of a maiden from her house, while she weeps and cries aloud, after her kinsmen have been slain (or beaten), wounded and (their houses or fortresses) are broken open, is called the Rākṣasa form. When a man has intercourse with a girl stealthily while she is asleep or intoxicated or disordered in mind (or unconscious), that is the Paisāca form, which is the basest and the most sinful of all forms.

In the first four forms there is the gift of the girl (*kanyūdāna*) by the father or other guardian to the bride-groom. The word 'dāna' here is used in a secondary sense (as stated above on p. 504) viz. in the sense of transfer of the father's right of guardianship and control of the maiden to the husband. All gifts are to be made with water in the case of brāhmaṇas as stated by Manu

1205. Baud. Dh. I. 11. 5 दक्षिणास्तु नीयमानास्वन्तर्वेदि ऋत्विजे स दैवः । According to him the girl becomes part of the *dakṣiṇā* (fee) for officiating. But in the Vedas and Śrauta sūtras a bride is nowhere spoken of as *dakṣiṇā*. Medhātithi on Manu III. 28 is against the idea of the bride being part of the sacrificial fee. Viśvarūpa also says so; but Aparārka p. 89 holds that the girl is given as fee.

(III. 35) and Gaut. V. 16-17.¹²⁰⁶ Similarly in all the four forms where there is *kanyādāna* the girl is to be well dressed and decked with ornaments. The essence of the *brāhma* form is that the girl is given without receiving anything from the bride-groom, who is invited and honoured by the girl's father. It is called *brāhma* either because *brahma* means the holy Veda and this mode being sanctioned by the most ancient texts it is the holiest and best form, or *brahma* means *dharma* and being the best of all forms it is called *brāhma* (vide *Smṛtimuk-tāphala* part I. p. 140). In the *ārṣa* form a pair of cattle is received from the bride-groom and it is somewhat inferior to the *brāhma* form. But the pair is given not as a price (i. e. there is no purchase), but because that is one way of effecting a marriage laid down by the *śāstras* (vide the passage quoted above at p. 504 ' therefore one should give a hundred cows &c ' and *Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 13. 11*, which is opposed to *Vas. Dh. S. I. 36*) and the gift is made to show one's regard for the girl (vide *Manu III. 53-54*). The *daiva* form is only appropriate to *brāhmaṇas* as only¹²⁰⁷ a *brāhmaṇa* could officiate at a sacrifice. It is so called because the bridegroom is engaged at the time in rites for the gods and it is inferior to the *brāhma* inasmuch as in it there is some trace of benefit to the father (that the priest may do his best in the rite for the gods). *Govindasvāmīn* on *Baud. Dh. S.* says ' the bride is in this form part of the sacrificial fee '. In all forms of marriage the husband and wife have to perform all religious acts together, as forcibly put by *Āp. Dh. S.*¹²⁰⁸ (there is no separation between husband and wife, since from the time of taking the hand of the wife there is joint performance of all religious actions). But in the *Prājāpatya* the words used indicate according to the commentators (vide *Saṁ.*

1206. स्वस्तिवाच्य भिक्षादानसम्पूर्वम् । ददातिषु चैवं धर्म्येषु । गौतम V. 16-17. *Strabo* (XV. 1. 54) refers to purchase of a wife in exchange for two oxen.

1207. देवा कृत्विजस्ते एनमर्हन्तीति दैवः । दक्षिणातिरिक्तं चैतद् दानं फल-
अवणात् । मन्त्रद्वारा ब्राह्मणा ऋषयः । ते एनमर्हन्तीत्यार्षः । प्रजोत्पादनेच्छासामा-
न्यात्प्रजापतिः स्नातकः स एनमर्हतीति प्राजापत्यः । विश्वरूप on या I. 59-60.

1208. जायापत्योर्न विभागो विद्यते । पाणिग्रहणाद्वि सहत्वं कर्मसु । तथा पुण्यफलेषु
द्रव्यपरिग्रहेषु च । *आप. ध. II. 6. 13. 16-18*. About *प्राजापत्य* the सं. को. (p. 732) quotes the परिजात " अत्र विशेषं पारिजाते भगवान् ॥ अन्येष्वपि विवाहेषु
धर्मस्याचरणं सह । यद्यप्युक्तं तथाप्यत्र विशेषोक्तिर्युहाश्रमात् । आश्रमान्तरयोगो वा मृतायां भवतस्तु
तौ ॥ इति । अन्ये तु पूर्वादावनम्रिषाध्येषु साहित्यनियमार्था सेति । ; the सं. प. p. 852
quotes the first two views as those of देवस्वामिनः.

Pr. p. 852 and Haradatta on Gaut. IV. 5) one or more of several things, viz. that the husband will remain a house-holder all his life and will not become a recluse while the wife is living or that he will not marry another wife i. e. it will be a strictly monogamous marriage which is defined in *Hyde v. Hyde* (1866), P. and M. p. 130 as 'the voluntary union for life of one man and one woman to the exclusion of all others' (p. 133), or that he will associate the wife with himself not only in sacrifices but also in works of charity (like building tanks, wells &c.). This form is inferior to brāhma in that the father, as it were, makes a special stipulation with the bride-groom, while in the brāhma there is no such special stipulation, but the bride-groom promises that he will not break faith with his wife in the matter of the three puruṣārthas, dharma, artha, kāma.¹²⁰⁹

In the āsura form there is practically a sale of the girl for money or money's worth and so it is not approved. The āṛṣa is distinguished from āsura in this that in the latter there is no limit to what is taken from the bride-groom, while in the former a pair of cattle is offered as a matter of form. In the gāndharva there is no gift by the father; on the contrary the father's authority is set at naught by the girl for the time being. Marriage was a sacrament according to ancient sages, and its principal purposes as stated above (pp. 428-29) were the acquisition of merit by the performance of religious duty and of progeny. In the gāndharva form the principal object was gratification of carnal desires and so it is held inferior to the first four forms and is disapproved. This kind of marriage is so called because it is prompted by mutual love and the Gandharvas were known to be libidinous, as the Tai. S. VI. 1. 6. 5 (striḱāmā vai Gandharvāḥ) and Ait. Br. V. 1 state. In this form at least the girl's feelings are consulted. In the rākṣasa and the paisāca, there is no gift by the father and both are or may be against the wish of the girl. The forcible carrying of the girl is the essence of the rākṣasa (even if there is no fight because the girl's father takes no retaliatory steps in fear of the abductor's strength). It is called rākṣasa because rākṣasas (demons) are known from legends to have been addicted to cruel and forceful methods. The paisāca is so called because in it there is action like that of piśācas (goblins) that are supposed to act stealthily by night.

1209. 'एवं हि स्मरन्ति । धर्मे चार्थे च कामे च नातिचरितव्येति ।' शबर on जैमिनि VI. 1. 17. The सं. प्र. (pp. 848 and 852) says that these words occur in the काठकयुद्धपरिशिष्ट on ब्राह्मविधि.

It is not to be supposed that when ancient sages held that *rāksasa* and *paśāca* were forms of marriage, they legalized marriage by capture or stealth. What they meant was that these were the means of securing ¹²¹⁰ wives and that there are not really eight kinds of *vivāhas*, but rather there are eight ways in which wives may be secured. It is for this reason that Vatsa says that if a fine girl cannot be secured by any means she may be approached even in private by stealth and married. The sages condemned in no measured terms the *paśāca*. From the fact that Āpastamba and Vasiṣṭha both ignore the *Paiśāca* and *Prājāpatya* it may be inferred that these two had ceased to be recognised by their time and that the other sages enumerated them only because they appeared in ancient works and for the sake of completeness of treatment. Vasiṣṭha (17. 73) expressly repudiates the idea that legal wifehood can arise by forcible seizure of a girl 'if a damsel ¹²¹¹ has been abducted by force and not wedded with sacred texts she may lawfully be given to another man (in marriage); she is just as good as a maiden'. The *smṛtis* out of regard for the future welfare of the girl preferred to blink at the wrong done, but insisted upon the abductor or stealthy seducer performing the rites of *homa* and *saptapadi* in order to confer on the girl wronged the status of a legally married wife. But if the wrong-doer was unwilling to do this they recommended that the girl may be given to another in marriage and pronounced very heavy punishments for the abductor or seducer of a girl (*vide* *Manu* VIII. 366 and *Yaj.* II. 287-288). Sir Goo-roodas Banerjee ¹²¹² rightly expresses surprise at Macnaughten's saying that fraud was legalised by the Hindu Law in the case of the *paśāca* form. *Manu* VIII. 366 says that if a man has intercourse with a girl of his own caste with her consent, he will have to give a fee to the father if the latter so desires and

1210. न चेच्छासंयोगमात्रं विवाहः स्वीकरणोपायभेदाददौ विवाहा न पुनर्विवाह-
भेदात् । मेधा० on मनु VIII. 366 ; सर्वोपायैरसाध्या स्यात्सुकन्या पुरुषस्य वा । ज्यैष्ठ्यापि
विवाहेन सा विवाह्या रहः स्थिता ॥ वत्स quoted in स्मृतिदु० (वर्णा०) p. 142 ; सं. प्र.
p. 861 ; सं. कौ. p. 735 ; माधव allows the गान्धर्व only to kṣatriyas and others
(not to ब्राह्मणसः).

1211. बलाच्चेत्यहता कन्या मन्त्रैर्यदि न संस्कृता । अन्यस्मै विधिवद्देया यथा कन्या
तथैव सा ॥ वसिष्ठ 17. 73. This is also कौ. ध. IV. 1. 17 and it is quoted and
explained by विश्वरूप on या. I. 69.

1212. Vide 'Marriage and stridhana' (5th ed. of 1923 p. 94).
Macnaughten in his 'Principles and Precedents of Hindu Law' p. 60
said so in a note.

Medhātithi ¹²¹³ adds that if the father does not desire money the lover will have to pay a fine to the king, that the girl may be given to him or if she has lost her love for him, she may be given to another and if the lover himself wants to discard her he should be forced to accept her (as a wife). Nārada (stri-puṁsa, verse 72) similarly says that if a man has sexual intercourse with a maiden who is a consenting party, then there is no offence, but he must marry her after decking her (with ornaments) and treating her with honour.

The Sm. C. and other digests state that in the gāndharva, āsura, rākṣasa and paśāca homa and *saptapadī* are necessary and they quote Devala and the Gr̥hyaparīṣiṣṭa in support. The Mahābhārata (Ādi. 195. 7) ¹²¹⁴ expressly says that even after svayamvara religious rites had to be performed. Kālidāsa in Raghuvamśa VII describes how after the svayamvara of Indumatī the principal religious rites of madhuparka, homa, going round the fire, pāṇigrahaṇa took place. Since Āśvalāyana first speaks of eight forms and then prescribes the performance of homa and saptapadī, he implies that these are necessary in all forms.

The smṛtis contain several views about the suitability of these eight to various varṇas. All are agreed that the first four, brāhma, daiva, ārṣa and prājāpatya, are the approved forms (praśasta or dharma). Vide Gaut. IV. 12, Āp. Dh. S II. 5. 12. 3, Manu III. 24, Nārada (stri-puṁsa, verse 44) &c. Most say that each preceding one out of the first four is superior to each succeeding one and that thus brāhma is the best (*vide* Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 12. 4, Baud. Dh. S. I. 11. 11). Almost all are agreed that paśāca is the worst. Manu III. 23-26 refers to several views. One view is that the first four (brāhma &c.) are the proper forms for brāhmaṇas (Baud. Dh. S. I. 11. 10, Manu III. 24). Another view was that the first six (out of the eight i. e. all except rākṣasa and paśāca) are allowed to brāhmaṇas and the last four to kṣatriyas, and the gāndharva, āsura and paśāca to vaiśyas and śūdras (Manu III. 23). A third view was that prājāpatya, gāndharva and āsura may be resorted to

1213. अथवा ऋतुदर्शनकालोत्तरं गान्धर्वः । प्रायतोः शुल्को दण्डो वा । अथ कन्यायाः का प्रतिपत्तिः । तस्मा एव देया । निवृत्ताभिलाषा चित्काममन्यत्र प्रतिपाद्या । ...वरश्चे-
न्निवृत्ताभिलाषो हठाद् ग्राहयितव्यः । मेधा^० on मनु VIII. 367 ; सकामायां तु कन्यायां
संगमे नास्त्यतिक्रमः । किंत्वलंकृत्य सत्कृत्य स एवैनां समुद्भवेत् ॥ नारद (स्त्रीपुंस-verse 72).

1214. भुवं विवाहकरणमास्थास्यामि विधानतः । आदिपर्व 195. 7.

by all varṇas and paśāca and āsura should not be resorted to by any one of any varṇa (Manu III. 25 = Anuśāsana 44. 9-10), but in another verse (III. 24) Manu allows āsura to vaiśyas and śūdras^{1214a}. Manu mentions the view that the gāndharva and rākṣasa are proper (dharmya) for a kṣatriya or a mixture of these two viz. where the girl loves the bride-groom, but her parents or guardians disapprove or cause obstacles and the lover takes away the girl after a fight with her relations (Manu III. 26 and Baud. Dh. S. I. 11. 13). Baud. Dh.S.¹²¹⁵ (I. 11. 14-16) recommends āsura and paśāca to vaiśyas and śūdras and assigns the interesting reason 'for the vaiśyas and śūdras do not keep their wives under restraints, they having to do the work of ploughing and waiting upon (the other varṇas)'. Nārada (śrīpuruṣa, verse 40) says that gāndharva is common to all varṇas. The Kāmasūtra (III. 5. 28) first speaks of the brāhma as the best (following the view of the dharmaśāstra writers) and then, true to its own particular subject, gives its own opinion that gāndharva is the best (Kāmasūtra III. 5. 29-30).

The gāndharva form was very much in vogue among royal families. In the Śakuntala,¹²¹⁶ Kālidāsa gives expression to this practice. In the Mahābhārata¹²¹⁷ Kṛṣṇa says to Arjuna who was in love with Subhadrā that carrying away by force one's lady-love is commended in the case of valiant kṣatriyas. In the Sanjan plates of Amoghavarṣa (dated *śake* 793) it is stated that Indrarāja married the daughter of the Cālukya king at Kaira by the rākṣasa form of marriage (E. I. vol. 18, p. 235 at p. 243). Another and a very famous historic example of the rākṣasa form is the forcible abduction after a most dashing and valiant fight by Pṛthvīrāja Cohan of the daughter of

1214 a. न चासुरादिविवाहेषु सप्तपदादिक्रमणाद्यभावेन पतित्वभार्यात्वयोरनुप-
पत्तिरिति शङ्कनीयम् । तत्रापि स्वीकारानन्तरमेव संस्कारविधानात् । तथा च देवलः । गान्धर्वा-
दिविवाहेषु पुनर्वैवाहिको विधिः । कर्तव्यश्च त्रिभिर्वर्णैः समयेनाग्निसाक्षिकः ॥ गृह्यपरिशिष्टेऽपि
गान्धर्वास्तुरपैशाचविवाहा राक्षसश्च यः । पूर्वं परिणयस्तेषां पश्चाद्धोमो विधीयते । परिणयः
स्वीकारः । स्मृतिच० I. p. 87; the same words occur in स्मृतिमुक्ताफल p. 145;
vide उद्गाहस्तव p. 129 also.

1215. पञ्चमाष्टमौ वैश्यशूद्राणाम् । अयन्त्रितकलत्रा हि वैश्यशूद्रा भवन्ति । कर्षण-
शुश्रूषाधिकृतत्वात् । बौ. य. I. 11. 14-16.

1216. गान्धर्वेण विवाहेन बह्व्यो राजर्षिकन्यकाः । श्रूयन्ते परिणीतास्ताः पितृभिश्चाभि-
नन्दिताः ॥ शाकुन्तल III.

1217. प्रसह्य हरणं चापि क्षत्रियाणां प्रशस्यते । विवाहहेतुः शूराणामिति धर्मविदो
विदुः ॥ आदिपर्व 219. 22.

Jayacandra, the king of Kanoj. ¹²¹⁸ It is said that the daughter of Jayacandra was a consenting party; in that case this would be a mixture of the two forms of gāndharva and rākṣasa (compare Manu III. 26).

The *svayamvara* very often spoken of in the dharmaśāstras was practically the gāndharva as stated by the commentary Viramitrodaya. ¹²¹⁹ It had several varieties. The simplest form of *svayamvara* occurs when, as described by Vas. Dh. S. 17. 67-68, Manu IX. 90, Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 13, a girl, who attains puberty and whose father does not find a proper husband for three years, herself seeks her husband (or after three months from puberty according to Gaut. 18. 20, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 25. 40-41). Yāj. I. 64 also recommends *svayamvara* to every girl when there is no parent or other guardian who can find out a worthy husband for her. When a girl chose her own husband as above she had to return all ornaments given to her by her parents or brother and the husband who married her had to pay no *śulka* (dowry) to the father as the latter lost his power over her by not giving her away in time (vide Gaut. 18. 20 and Manu IX. 92). This simple *svayamvara* was applicable to girls of all castes. Sāvitrī indulged in this kind of *svayamvara*, when she went about in a chariot to find out a suitable husband for herself. But the *svayamvaras* described in the two great epics are often most elaborate and spectacular affairs and were confined to royal families. The Ādiparva says that kṣatriyas commend *svayamvara* and resort to it, but they prefer a girl who is carried off after subduing her relatives. Bhīṣma carried off the three daughters of the king of Kāśī and got two of them (Ambikā and Ambālikā) married to his ward Vicitravīrya. ¹²²⁰ The *svayamvara* of Sītā or Draupadī did not depend upon the will of the bride, but the bride was to be given in marriage to whomsoever showed a certain skill as a warrior. In the case of Damayanti it was a real choice of her husband by her (Vanaparva 54 ff.) though she chose Nala in a vast and splendid assembly of royal suitors. Kālidāsa also

1218. Vide Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. II. pp. 314-315 (in 1908); Tod's Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan Vol. II. p. 834.

1219. स्वं मे पतिस्त्वं मे भार्येत्येवं कन्यावरयोः परस्परं नियमबन्धात् पित्रादिकर्तृक-
दाननिरपेक्षाद्यो विवाहः स गान्धर्व इत्यर्थः । ...एवं च स्वयंवरोपि गान्धर्वविवाह एव ।
वीरमित्रोदय on या. I. 61.

1220. स्वयंवरं तु राजन्याः प्रशंसन्त्युपयान्ति च । प्रमथ्य तु हतामाहुर्ज्यायसीं धर्म-
वादिनः ॥ आदिपर्व 102. 16.

gives us a fine description of the svayamvara of Indumatī in the Raghuvamśa. Bilhana in his Vikramāṅka-devacarita (canto IX) gives a description of the historic svayamvara of Candralekhā (or Candaladevī) daughter of the Śilāhara prince of Karahāṭa (modern Karad), when she chose Āhavamalla or Vikramāṅka, the Cālukya king of Kalyāṇa (latter half of 11th century). Such a svayamvara, it appears, was thought to be unsuitable to brāhmaṇas according to the Ādiparva.¹²²¹ In the Kādambarī (Pūrvabhāga, penultimate para) Patralekhā says that svayamvara is ordained in the Dharmaśāstras.¹²²²

The Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 12. 4 makes a general statement that the progeny of a couple partakes of the character of the form in which they were married¹²²³ (i. e. if the marriage is in the best or in an approved form the son is good; if the marriage is in a condemned form, the son bears a low character). Manu (III. 39-42) expands the same idea by stating that sons born of marriages in the brāhma and other three forms are full of spiritual eminence and are endowed with beauty, virtues, wealth, fame and very long life, while sons of marriages of the other four forms are cruel, are liars, haters of the Veda and of dharma. Some sūtras and smṛtis state how many generations are rendered holy by a son born in one of the first four forms. For example, Āśv. gr. (I. 6) says that a son born of parents married in the brāhma, daiva, prājāpatya or āṛṣa forms respectively brings purification to twelve descendants and twelve ancestors on both sides (i. e. his father's and mother's), to ten descendants and ten ancestors on both sides, to eight descendants and ascendants on both sides and to seven descendants and ascendants. Manu (III. 37-38) and Yāj. (I. 58-60) put the matter somewhat differently. According to them the son of a brāhma marriage brings purification to ten paternal ancestors, to ten male descendants and to himself (in all 21), of the daiva marriage to seven paternal ancestors and seven male descendants, of the prājāpatya marriage to six male ancestors, to six male descendants and to himself (in all 13), of the āṛṣa marriage to three male ancestors and three male descendants. Gaut.

1221. न च विप्रेष्वधीकारो विद्यते वरणं प्रति । स्वयंवरः क्षत्रियाणामित्यं प्रथिता श्रुतिः । आदिपर्व 189. 7.

1222. किमिव कथयामि ते याः स्वयं वृत्तवत्यः पतीन् । यदि चैवमनर्थक एव तर्हि धर्मशास्त्रोपदिष्टः स्वयंवरविधिः । कादम्बरी, पूर्वभाग, para 225 (of my edition).

1223. यथायुक्तो विवाहस्तथायुक्ता प्रजा भवति । आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 12. 4.

(IV. 24-27) has similar provisions. Commentators like Viśvarūpa and Medhātithi explain that these verses are not to be taken literally. They merely praise the extreme desirability of the brāhma form. Viśvarūpa, however, alternatively proposes that one may accept the texts of the holy sages as literally true, following the *dictum* of Śābara that there is nothing too heavy (or impossible) for a holy text.¹²²⁴ One may laugh at these texts about the virtues of the several forms of marriage, but they are really intended to emphasize the high importance to the future of the race and to society of noble ideals of marriage, of morals and of a decent and peaceful mode of life.

The forms of marriage have their roots deep down in the Vedic Literature. Rg. X. 85 gives expression to a marriage in the brāhma form (there is *kanyūdāna* and so forth). The āsura form (by payment of money) is referred to in Rg. I. 109. 2 and Nirukta VI. 9 (quoted above in note 1175). The gāndharva form or svayamvara is indicated by Rg. X. 27. 12 (quoted above p. 439) and Rg. I. 119. 5. The story of Śyāvāśva narrated in the Brhad-devatā (V. 50) in connection with Rg. V. 61 makes an approach to the daiva form. It is related in the Brhad-devatā that Ātreya Arcanānas who officiated as a priest at a sacrifice for king Rathavīti asked for his son Śyāvāśva the hand of the king's daughter.

In modern times two forms are in vogue, the brāhma and āsura. In the brāhma form it is a gift of the girl pure and simple; in the āsura form it is like the sale of the bride for pecuniary consideration paid to the father or other guardian for his benefit. If this element of pecuniary consideration paid to the guardian exists, its effects cannot be undone by the form of a gift being gone through.¹²²⁵ The gāndharva form is said to be obsolete now, yet in some cases before the courts it has been held that it is still in vogue.¹²²⁶ There can be no gāndharva if the girl is a minor. Further if a widow remarries, that marriage

1224. स्तुतिनात्रमेतत् । भूतानां भाविनां पावनानुपपत्तेः । उपपत्तौ वा कृतनाशकृता-
गमपसङ्गात् । यद्वास्तु फलविधिः । विवाहविशेषस्य फलविशेषापेक्षत्वात् । न चागमादुत्तरिण्य-
र्थेऽनुपपत्तिरिति शक्यं वक्तुम् । तथा च नैयायिकाः । न हि वचनस्यातिभारोस्तीत्याहुः । विश्वरूप
on या. I. 58. The words नहि... भारोस्ति are from शबर's भाष्य on जै. III. 2. 3.

1225. Vide *Chunilal v. Surajram* 33 Bom. 433 at p. 438; *Hira v. Hansji Pema* 37 Bom. 295 at p. 299; *Kailasanatha v. Parasakthi* 58 Mad. 488, 491.

1226. Vide 12 Mad. 72; 17 Patna 134, 141; but in A.I. R. 1930 Oudh p. 426 it is held that the gāndharva form is obsolete.

will be ordinarily regarded as gāndharva, because there will be no gift of a *kanyā* (as she is a widow) and because she herself will generally arrange such a marriage.

Before proceeding to set out in detail the ceremonies of marriage, it would be best to analyse the contents of R̥gveda X. 85, which is a marriage hymn redolent of the highest ideal of marriage and conjugal felicity and several verses of which are recited even now in the marriage rites. The hymn refers to a mythical marriage of Sūryā, daughter of Savitr, with Soma and the important features of the marriage, though not arranged in a regular sequence in the hymn, are: the two Āśvins went to ask for Sūryā as a bride for Soma¹²²⁷ (verses 8-9); Savitr agreed to give her (v. 9), the bride-groom was treated with honour, presents were made to him and cows were killed for (or presented to) him; Soma took hold of her hand with the verse (36) 'I¹²²⁸ take thy hand for prosperity (or love) so that you may grow to old age with me thy husband; the gods, Bhaga, Aryaman, Savitr, the wise Pūṣan have given thee to me for performing the duties of a house-holder'; the bride is a gift by her father in the presence of gods and the fire (v. 40-41); the girl passes from the dominion and control of her father and becomes united with her husband (v. 24); the bride is blest as follows: 'may you stay here together, may you not be separated, may you compass all life (long life), happy in your own house and playing with your sons and grandsons; O Indra! make her endowed with worthy sons and prosperity; bestow on her ten sons and make her husband the eleventh (male); may you be queen over your father-in-law, mother-in-law, over the husband's brother and sister (vv. 42, 45-46)'.¹²²⁹ Among subordinate items it is noteworthy that Raibhyā was sent along with Sūryā as her friend (*anudeyī*) to make her time not hang heavy on her hands

1227. सोमो बधुसुरभवद्विनास्तासुभा वर। सूर्या यत्पत्ये शंसन्ती मनसा सविता-
द्वदात् ॥ ऋ. X. 85. 9. The word वर here and in some of the gṛhyasūtras
also (e. g. Āp. gr. II. 16) means those who ask for the girl on behalf
of the bride-groom.

1228. शुभ्यामि ते सौभगत्वाय हस्तं मया पत्या जरदृष्टिर्यथासः। भगो अर्यमा सविता
पुरन्धिर्महं त्वादुर्गाहपत्याय देवाः ॥ ऋ. X. 85. 36. In the आप. म. पाठ. I. 3. 3
the reading is सुपजास्त्वाय (for worthy progeny) instead of सौभगत्वाय.

1229. इहैव स्तं मा वि यौष्टं विश्वमायुर्वश्नुतम्। कीळन्तौ पुत्रैर्नष्टुभिर्मोदमानौ स्वे
यदे ॥ इमां त्वमिन्द्र मीढुः सुपुत्रां सुभगां कुणु। दशस्यां पुत्रानाधेहि पतिमेकादशं कुधि ॥
सम्राज्ञी श्वशुरे भव सम्राज्ञी श्वश्रवां भव। ननान्दूरि सम्राज्ञी भव सम्राज्ञी अधि देवेषु ॥ ऋ.
X. 85. 42, 45-46.

(v. 6) when she first went to her husband's family (just as in modern times in Western India some woman accompanies the bride for a few days as *pāṭharākhiṇ* 'one who guards'), that even a female servant accompanied Sūryā.¹²³⁰

In connection with the rites of marriage it is necessary to observe that the greatest divergence prevailed from very ancient times. Āsv. gr. (I. 7. 1-2) says 'various indeed are the observances of (different) countries and villages; one should follow those in marriages; what, however, is common (to all or most) that we shall declare'. Similarly Āp. gr. (2. 15) declares 'people should understand from women (and others) what procedure is (to be observed according to custom)' and the commentator Sudarśanācārya notes that certain rites like the worship of planets, āṅkurāropapa and the tying of pratisara (the marriage string or ribbon round the wrist) are usual and are performed with Vedic mantras, while others like Nāgabali, Yakṣabali and the worship of Indrāṇī are performed without Vedic mantras. The Kāthakagṛhya 25. 7 allows usages of countries and families to be observed in marriage and the commentators mention several such usages. As the grhya-sūtra of Āśvalāyana contains perhaps the shortest account of marriage rites and as that sūtra is probably the most ancient among the grhya sūtras I shall set out below the entire ceremony of marriage from that sūtra. Then a few important details from other grhya sūtras will be added and it will be pointed out how in modern times a marriage is celebrated, particularly among higher classes. It must be remembered that there is not only great divergence as to the number of separate ceremonies that constitute the saṁskāra of marriage, but the sequence of even the most important ceremonies is different in the several sūtras and the mantras also are different (though some like Rg. X. 185. 36 are common to all). It is remarkable that out of the 47 verses of Rg. X. 85, the Āp. Mantrapāṭha employs as many as 29 (most of which are quoted in connection with marriage). The main outlines of the marriage saṁskāra show a remarkable continuity for several thousand years from the times of the Rgveda down to modern times.

The Āsv. gr. (I. 7. 3-I. 8.) deals with all the marriage rites as follows †: Having placed to the west of the fire (that is

1230. रैग्यासीद्वहदेवी नाराजंसा न्योचनी। ऋ. X. 185. 6. अहदेवी means वयस्या and न्योचनी means दासी.

† Vide Appendix for text under note 1230.

kindled on the altar as described already) a mill-stone and to the north-east (of the fire) a water jar, he should offer sacrifice (with the *sruva*), while the bride takes hold of him (touches his right hand). Standing with his face turned to the west, while the bride is sitting and has her face turned to the east, he should seize only her thumb with the mantra 'I take hold of thy hand for happiness' (Rg. X. 85. 36 quoted in note 1228), if he desires that only male children be born to him; he may seize her other fingers if he is desirous of female children; he may seize her hand on the hair side together with the thumb if he be desirous of both (male and female children). Leading her thrice round the fire and the water jar so that their right sides are turned towards (the fire &c.) he murmurs¹²³¹ 'I am *ama* (this), thou art *sā* (she), thou art *sā*, I am *ama*; I am heaven, thou art the earth; I am the *sāman*, thou art the *ṛk*. Let us both marry here. Let us beget offspring. Dear to each other, bright, having well disposed minds, may we live for a hundred years!' Each time he leads her round (the fire) he makes her tread on the stone with (the words) 'tread on this stone; be firm like a stone; overcome the enemies; trample down the foes'.¹²³² Having first poured clarified butter over her joined hands, the bride's brother or some one who is in the place of brother pours fried grain twice over the bride's joined hands, three times in the case of those whose gotra is Jamadagni (i. e. if the bridegroom is of that gotra). Then he pours clarified butter over what has been left of the *havis* (sacrificial material or offering) and over what has been cut off (separated from the aggregate). This is the rule about the portions to be cut off (in every case where there is *avadāna*).¹²³³ With the following verses (recited by the bride-groom)

1231. *Vide* the same passage with slight differences quoted on p. 202 in the Garbhādhāna ceremony from the Br. Up. VI. 4. 20; the Tai. Br. III. 7. 1 has the words 'अमुहमस्मि सा त्वम् । द्यौरहं पृथिवी त्वम् । सामाहयुक्त्वम् । तवेहि संभवाय । सह रेता दधावहे पुते पुत्राय वत्तवे । रायस्योषाय सुपञ्जास्त्राय सुवीर्यायति ।'

1232. In the आप. न. पाठ I. 5. 1. this mantra is आतिष्ठेनमश्मानमश्मेवभव । अभितिष्ठ पृतन्यतः सहस्व पृतनायतः ॥ १'.

1233. The two portions of *tāja* (fried grain) poured into the bride's hands together with the first pouring of *ṛjya* (called उपस्तरण) and the subsequent pouring of *ṛjya* (called प्रत्यभिचारण) constitute the four *avattas* or portions cut off from the material for *havis*. The descendants of Jamadagni are पञ्चावत्तिनः (*vide* above p. 490); therefore three portions of *tāja* are to be poured out (in order to make with उपस्तरण and प्रत्यभिचारण, five *avattas*). For these terms (चतुरवत्त and पञ्चावत्त) *vide* शतपथ I. 7. 2. 7-8.

viz. 'to god Aryaman the girls offered sacrifice; may he the god Aryaman loosen her from this (i. e. her father's) and not from that place (the bride-groom's), *svāhā!* to god Varuṇa the girls have offered sacrifice; may he, god Varuṇa &c. To god Pūṣan the girls have offered sacrifice, to Agni; may he, god Pūṣan &c. ; with these (the bride) should sacrifice (the fried grain) without opening her joined hands, as if they were the spoon called *śruc*. Without going round the fire the bride sacrifices fried grain a fourth time silently with the neb of the *śūrpa* (winnowing basket) towards herself. Some¹²³⁴ lead the bride round each time after fried grain has been poured out, so that the two last oblations do not follow immediately after each other. Then he loosens her two locks of hair if they are made up (that is if her hair has been bound round on two sides with two tufts of wool), (the right one) with the mantra 'I release thee from the fetter of Varuṇa' (Rg. X. 85. 24) and the left one with the following mantra (Rg. X. 85. 25). Then he causes her to step forward in a north-eastern direction seven steps with the words 'may you take one step for sap, second step for juice (or vigour), third step for the thriving of wealth, fourth step for comfort, fifth step for offspring, sixth step for seasons, may you be my friend with your seventh step! May you be devoted to me; let us have many sons, may they reach old age'.¹²³⁵ Bringing the heads of the two (bride and bride-groom) together, he (the *ācārya*) sprinkles

1234. The first view requires that leading the bride round the fire, making her tread on the stone and the offering of fried grain are each repeated thrice; so that when the offering prescribed here for the 4th time is made, it follows immediately on the third offering of *tājas*. Other teachers made the bride first offer *tājas*, then she was led round the fire. When this was done the 4th oblation of *tājas* would not come immediately after the third oblation of *tājas*, but after she went round the fire the third time. The Gobhila gr. II. 1. 14 prescribes that the fried grain to be offered into fire is mixed with tendrils of the *śamī* plant and Kālidāsa (in Raghuvamśa VII. 25-26) refers to *śamī* and *tājas*.

1235. This (the सप्तपदी-taking seven steps together) is the most important rite in the marriage saṃskāra. We have to understand 'भव' after each sentence 'इष एकपदी भव ऊर्जे द्विपदी भव.' These words occur in all gṛhyasūtras, e. g. vide Āp. M. P. I. 3. 7-14 and Āp. gr. 4. 15-16, Śān. gr. I. 14. 6, Pār. gr. I. 8, Gobhila gr. II. 2. 11, Hir. gr. I. 21. 1 &c. But there are slight variations as well. For example, पारस्कर, भरद्वाज, हिरण्य- and शाङ्खस्मृत्यायन substitute पञ्चम्यः for प्रजाभ्यः, while the first three of these and मानव and बौधायनयज्ञा add विष्णुस्त्वा नयतु (or विष्णुस्त्वान्वेतु in भरद्वाज) after each of the seven clauses. पारस्कर reads सखे सप्तपदा for सखा सप्तपदी.

their heads with water from the water jar. And the bride should dwell that night in the house of an old brāhmaṇa woman whose husband and children are alive.¹²³⁶ When she (the bride) has seen the Pole star, the star Arundhatī and the seven sages (the constellation of Ursa Major), let her break her silence and say 'may my husband live and may I secure offspring'.¹²³⁷ If (the newly married couple) have to make a journey (to their home in another village), let him cause the bride to mount a chariot with the verse 'may Pūṣan lead thee from here holding thy hand' (Rg. X. 85. 26); he should make her ascend into a boat with the hemistich 'carrying stones (or the river called Aśmanvatī) flows; get ready' (Rg. X. 53. 8) and let him make her descend from the boat with the following hemistich; if she weeps let him pronounce the verse 'they weep for the living' (Rg. X. 40. 10). They constantly carry the nuptial fire in front. At pleasing places, trees and cross roads, let him mutter 'may no way-layers meet us' (Rg. X. 85. 32). At every dwelling place (on the way) let him look at the onlookers with the mantra 'this newly married bride brings good luck' (Rg. X. 85. 33). He should make her enter his house with the verse 'here may happiness increase unto you through offspring' (Rg. X. 85. 27). Having kindled with fuel sticks the nuptial fire and having spread to the west of it a bull's hide with the neck turned towards the east and the hair outside he makes oblations, while she (the bride) is sitting (on that hide) and takes hold of him, with the four verses (one oblation with each verse) 'may Prajāpati create offspring to us' (Rg. X. 85. 43-46); and then he partakes of curds with the verse 'may all the gods unite our hearts' (Rg. X. 85. 47) and gives (the remaining curds) to her or he besmears the heart (of both) with the rest of the *ājya* (with part of which he had already sacrificed). From that time they should not eat *kṣāra*¹²³⁸ and *lavāṇa*, should observe celibacy, wear ornaments and sleep on the ground (not on cots) for three nights or twelve nights or for a year according to some (teachers); thus (those

1236. This rule has no application if the bride and the bride-groom belong to the same village. But if they belong to different villages and the newly married couple have to stay somewhere for the night on their journey then this rule applies.

1237. This indicates that after the *homa* is finished, the bride is to observe silence till she sees the Pole star.

1238. For the meaning of *kṣāra* and *lavāṇa* see note 723 above.

teachers say) a *ṛṣi* will be born as a son (to them). When he has fulfilled these observances he should give the bride's shift to a *brāhmaṇa* who knows the *Sūryā* hymn (Rg. X. 85) and food to *brāhmaṇas*. Then he should cause the *brāhmaṇas* to pronounce auspicious words.

In this description of the *saṁskāra* of marriage there are three parts. There are certain rites that are preliminary, there are then a few rites that are of the essence of the *saṁskāra* viz. *pāṇigrahaṇa*, *homa*, going round the fire and the *saptapadī*, and there are certain rites like the seeing of the Pole star &c. that are subsequent to the central rites. The essential rites are mentioned by all *sūtrakāras*, but as to the preceding and subsequent rites there is a great divergence in the details. Even as regards the essential rites the sequence in which they take place differs. For example, the *Āśv. gr.* (I. 7. 7) describes going round the fire before *saptapadī*, while the *Āp. gr.* describes *saptapadī* (IV. 16) before the act of going round the fire (V. 1). The *Gobhila grhya* (II. 2. 16), the *Khādira gr.* (I. 3. 31), and *Baud. gr.* (I. 4. 10) describe *pāṇigrahaṇa* after *saptapadī* while many other *sūtrakāras* describe it before *saptapadī*. Then again there are many acts reference to which is altogether omitted in the *Āśv. gr.*, e. g. there is no reference to *madhuparka* (which is mentioned in *Āp. gr.* III. 8, *Baud. gr.* I. 2. 1, *Mānava gr.* I. 9) nor to *kanyādāna* (which is referred to in *Pār. gr.* I. 4 and described in detail in *Mānava gr.* I. 8. 6-9). *Āśv.* probably omitted express mention of *kanyādāna*, because in defining the first four forms he uses the word 'dadyāt' while in the last four there is no *kanyādāna* and *Āśv.* wanted to describe ceremonies that were common to all forms.

Taking as many *grhya sūtras* as I could read, the following is a fairly exhaustive list of the different matters described in the *saṁskāra* of marriage. A few notes are added against those that are deemed important.¹²³⁹

Vadhūvara-guṇaparīkṣā: (examining the suitability of a girl or a bride-groom). This has been dealt with already (vide pp. 429-436 above).

Varapreṣaṇa: (sending persons to negotiate for the hand of the girl). The ancient custom seems to have been to send

1239. Among the principal ceremonies in marriage described by *Kalidāsa* in the *Raghuvamśa* VII are *madhuparka*, *homa*, going round the fire, *pāṇigrahaṇa*, *lāja-homa* and *ādrākṣatā-ropana*.

some person or persons (Rg. X. 85. 8-9) to the father of the girl for asking her in marriage. The same was the practice in the sūtras. *Vide* Śān. gr. I. 6. 1-4 (where Rg. X. 85. 23 is the mantra recited when sending them), Baud. gr. I. 1. 14-15, Āp. gr. II. 16 and IV. 1-2 and 7. Even in medieval times, particularly among kṣatriyas, the bride-groom was the first to seek for the hand of a girl. In the Harṣacarita, prince Grahavarmā of the Maukhari race sent messengers for the hand of princess Rājyaśrī, sister of Harṣa¹²⁴⁰. In modern times among the brāhmaṇas and many other castes, the girl's father has to seek a bride-groom, though among the sūdras and several other castes the old practice is retained.

Vāgdāna or *Vān-niścaya*: (settling the marriage). This is described by Śān. gr. I. 6. 5-6. Medieval works like the S. R. M. pp. 529-533 describe this ceremony at great length.

Maṇḍapa-karaṇa: Erecting a *pandal* where the ceremonies are to be performed. Pār. gr. I. 4 says that marriage, caula, upanayana, keśānta and śimanta are to be performed outside the house in a *pandal*. *Vide* Sam. Pr. pp. 817-818.

Nāndī-śrāddha and *Puṇyāhavācana*: These are referred to by Baud. gr. I. 1. 24; most of the grhyasūtras are silent about these. *Vide* for these pp. 216, 218 above.

Vadhūgrhāgamana: (bride-groom's going to the bride's house). *Vide* Śān. gr. I. 12. 1.

Madhuparka: (reception of the bride-groom at the bride's house). Āp. gr. III. 8, Baud. gr. I. 2. 1, Mānava gr. I. 9 and Kāthaka gr. 24. 1-3 prescribe this. *Vide* below chap. X for madhuparka. Śān. gr. I. 12. 10 appears to refer to two madhuparkas, one before marriage and one after marriage (when the bride-groom returned to his own house). The commentator Ādityadarśana on Kāthaka gr. 24. 1 refers to the opinion of some that madhuparka should be offered at the close of the marriage, but states his own view that in all countries it is offered before marriage.

Snāpana, *Paridhāpana* and *Saṁnahana*: (making the bride bathe, put on new clothes and girding her with a string or rope of darbha.) *Vide* Āp. gr. IV. 8 and Kāthaka gr. 25. 4. Pār. gr.

1240. शोभने च दिवसे ग्रहवर्षणा कन्यां प्रार्थयितुं प्रेषितस्य पूर्वगितस्त्वैव प्रधानदूत-
पुरुषस्य करे सर्वराजकुलसमक्षं दुहितृदानजलमपातयत् । हर्षचरित 4th उच्छ्वास.

I. 4 refers only to the putting on of two garments, Gobhila gr. (II. 1. 17-18) refers to bathing and putting on a garment, Mānava gr. (I. 11. 4-6) refers to paridhāpana and samnahana. Strangely enough Gobhila gr. II. 1. 10 speaks of the sprinkling of the girl's head with the best of *surā* (wine), which the commentator explains as water.

Samañjana : (anointing the bride and bride-groom). *Vide* Śān. gr. I. 12. 5, Gobhila gr. II. 2. 15, Pār. gr. I. 4, in all of which Rg. X. 85. 47 is cited as the mantra with which anointing or sprinkling is done.

Pratisarabandha : (tying an amulet string on the bride's hand). *Vide* Śān. gr. I. 12, 6-8; Kauśika sūtra 76. 8.

Vadhūvara-niṣkramaṇa : (the coming out into the *pandal* of the bride and bride-groom from the inner part of the house). Pār. gr. I. 4.

Parasparasamīkṣaṇa : (looking at each other). *Vide* Pār. gr. I. 4, Āp. gr. IV. 4, Baud. gr. I. 1. 24-25. Pār. gr. I. 4 says that the bride-groom recites Rg. X. 85. 44, 40, 41 and 37 at this time. Āp. gr. IV. 4 and Baud. gr. say he recites Rg. X. 85. 44. The Āśv. gr. parīṣiṣṭa I. 23 says that first of all a piece of cloth is held between the bride-groom and bride and that at the proper astrological moment it is removed and then the two see each other. Laghu-Āśvalāyana-smṛti (15. 20) also says the same. This practice is observed even now. When the interposed cloth is held between the bride and bride-groom verses called *maṅga-lāṣṭakas* are repeated by brāhmaṇas, the last of which verses is 'tad-eva lagnaṁ sudinam tad-eva' &c.

Kanyādāna : (the gift of the bride). *Vide* Pār. gr. I. 4, Mānava gr. I. 8. 6-9, Vārāha gr. 13. The Āśv. gr. parīṣiṣṭa sets out the procedure about the *kanyādāna* which is the same even now. The Sam. K. p. 779 notes about half a dozen different methods of uttering the formula in *kanyādāna*. It is in this rite that the father of the girl says that the bride-groom should not prove false to the bride in dharma, artha and kāma and he responds with the words 'I shall not do so' (*nāticarāmi*).¹²⁴¹ This is done even now.

1241. शबर on जैमिनि VI. 1. 14 says 'एवं दानकाले संवादः क्रियते-धर्मे चार्थे च कामे च नातिचरित्येति'. *Vide* also note 1209 above. लङ्वाश्व० 15. 27 has 'एषा धर्मार्थकामेषु न त्याज्या स्वीकृता ह्यतः।'. According to मेधातिथि on मनु IX. 101 the words धर्मे चार्थे च कामे च नातिचरित्येति occur in आपस्तम्ब.

Agnisthāpana and homa: (establishing the fire and offering of *ājya* oblations into fire). Here there is great divergence about the number of *āhutis* and the mantras to be recited. *Vide* Āśv. gr. I. 7. 3 and I. 4. 3-7, Āp. gr. V. 1 (16 *āhutis* with 16 mantras), Gobhila gr. II. 1. 24-26, Mānava gr. I. 8, Bhāradvāja I. 13 &c.

Pūṇigrahaṇa: (Taking hold of the bride's hand).

Lūjahoma: (Offering of fried grain into fire by the bride). *Vide* Āśv. gr. I. 7. 7-13, Pār. gr. I. 6, Āp. gr. V. 3-5, Śāṇ. gr. I. 13. 15-17, Gobhila gr. II. 2. 5, Mānava gr. I. 11. 11, Baud. gr. I. 4. 25. &c. Āśv. gr. says that the bride makes three offerings of fried grain when mantras are repeated by the bridegroom and a fourth is made of the remaining *lājas* by the bride silently. Some others speak of only three offerings by the bride.

Agniparinayana: (the bride-groom going in front takes the bride round the fire and water jar). It is while doing this that he utters the words 'amohasmi' &c. (*vide* Śāṇ. gr. I. 13. 4, Hir. gr. I. 20. 2 &c.).

Aśmārohaṇa: (making the bride tread on a mill-stone). These three are done thrice viz. *lājahoma*, then *agniparinayana* and *aśmārohaṇa*, one after another.

Saptapadi: (taking seven steps together). This is done to the north of the fire; there are seven small heaps of rice and the bride-groom makes the bride step on each of these seven with her right foot beginning from the west.

Mūrdhābhiṣeka: (sprinkling holy water on the head of the bride and of the bride-groom according to some and on the head of the bride only according to others). Āśv. gr. I. 7. 20, Pār. gr. I. 8, Gobhila gr. II. 2. 15-16 &c.

Sūryodikṣaṇa: (making the bride look towards the sun). Pār. gr. I. 8 speaks of this and employs the mantra 'tac-cakṣur' (Rg. VII. 63. 16 = Vāj. S. 36. 24).

Hṛdayasparśa: (touching the bride's heart with a mantra). Pār. gr. I. 8, Bhār. gr. I. 17, Baud. gr. I. 4. 1.

Prekṣakānumantraṇa: (addressing the spectators with reference to the newly married bride). Mānava gr. I. 12. 1 (which employs Rg. X. 85. 33). Pār. I. 8 employs that verse for reciting over the bride.

Dakṣiṇādāna: (gifts to the *ācārya*). Pār. gr. I. 8, Śāṇ. gr. I. 14. 13-17 (both prescribe a cow as the fee in the case of

brāhmaṇas, a village in marriages of kings and nobles, a horse in marriages of vaiśyas &c.). Gobhila gr. II. 3. 23, Baud. gr. I. 4. 38 speak of only a cow.

Gṛhapraveśa: (entering the bride-groom's house).

Gṛhapraveśanīya homa: (sacrifice on entering the bride-groom's house). Śān. gr. I. 16. 1-12, Gobhila gr. II. 3. 8-12, Āp. gr. VI. 6-10.

Dhruvārundhatī-darśana: (pointing out the Pole star and Arundhatī to the bride at night on the day of marriage). Āśv. gr. I. 7. 22 speaks of the seven sages in addition, Mānava gr. I. 14. 9 speaks of the same three and adds Jīvanti, Bhār. gr. I. 19 speaks of Dhruva, Arundhatī and other nakṣatras, Āp. gr. VI. 12 (only Dhruva and Arundhatī), Pār. I. 8 (only Dhruva). According to Śān. gr. I. 17. 2, Hir. gr. I. 22. 10 both the bride and the bride-groom remain silent till night. According to Āśv. gr. only the bride does so. Gobhila gr. II. 3. 8-12 describes Dhruvārundhatī-darśana before *gṛhapraveśa*.

Āgneya Sthālīpāka: (mess of cooked food offered to Agni). Vide Āp. gr. VII. 1-5, Gobhila II. 3. 19-21, Bhār. gr. I. 18, Hir. gr. I. 23. 1-6.

Trirātravrata: (keeping for three nights after marriage certain observances). Vide Āśv. above p. 530 for the observances which are enumerated by almost all sūtrakāras. Āp. gr. VIII. 8-10, Baud. gr. I. 5. 16-17 contain the interesting injunction that the newly married pair should sleep on the ground on the same bed for three nights, but should interpose between them a staff of *udumbara* wood anointed with perfumes and wrapped round with a garment or a thread and that on the fourth night it should be removed with the verses Rg. X. 85. 21-22 and thrown into water.

Caturthikarma: (rite on the fourth night after marriage). This has been described above (pp. 202-204).

In the medieval digests certain other ceremonies are mentioned and they are observed in modern times also. A few of them will be noted below. Here again the order is not the same in all works. The Dharmasindhu p. 265 refers to this divergence.

Sīmāntapūjana: (honouring the bride-groom and his party on their arrival at the bride's village). This is done before vāgniścaya in modern times. Vide Sam. K. p. 768; Dharmasindhu III. p. 261.

Gaurī-Hara-pūjā: (worship of Śiva and his consort Gaurī). Sam. K. p. 766, S. R. M. p. 534 and 544, Dharmasindhu p. 261 (notes that there are several views as to when kanyādāna takes place) describe this. Images of Gaurī and Hara are to be made of gold or silver or pictures of them on a wall &c. or on a piece of cloth or stone are to be drawn and worshipped by the intending bride after punyāhavācana and before kanyādāna. Vide Laghu-Āśvalāyana 15. 35.

Indrāṇī-pūjā: (worship of Indrāṇī, the consort of god Indra). Vide Sam. K. p. 756, S. R. M. p. 545. This seems to have been comparatively an ancient practice as Kālidāsa in Raghuvamśa VII. 3 seems to refer to it (' there was absence of disturbers of svayamvara on account of the presence of Śacī '). Probably Śacī was worshipped before the *svayamvara* began.

Taila-haridrāropana: (Applying turmeric powder to the bride-groom's body from what is left after the bride's body has been so treated). Vide Sam. K. p. 757, Dharmasindhu III. p. 257.

Ādrākṣatāropana: (mutual showering of wet unbroken rice grains by the bride and bride-groom). In a vessel of some metal like silver a little milk is poured and clarified butter is sprinkled over it and unbroken wet rice grains are poured therein. The bridegroom applies milk and ghee to the joined hands of the bride twice and thrice places rice grains in the joined hands of the bride so that her *añjali* becomes filled up and twice sprinkles ghee over her joined hands. Some other person does the same to the joined hands of the bride-groom and the bride's father places a golden piece on the joined hands of both. Then the bride-groom places his joined hands on those of the bride whose father then repeats a mantra and raises her up; she then pours the rice over the head of the bridegroom who follows her in the same way. This is done thrice by each and then lastly by the bride (i. e. seven times in all). Then the priest sprinkles on their heads water with an udumbara twig together with *dūrvā* grass after reciting verses ' Āpo hi ṣṭhā &c. (Rg. X. 9. 1-3) '. Then the couple make a *tilaka* mark on each other's forehead, garland each other and tie a thread with a turmeric piece on each other's hand (which is variously called 'kaṅkaṇa-bandhana' or 'kautuka-bandhana'). Vide Sam. Pr. pp. 828-829, S. R. M. p. 556. Kālidāsa in Raghuvamśa VII describes ādrākṣatā-ropana as the last of the rites of marriage and in VIII. 1 speaks of the kautuka.

Maṅgalasūtra-bandhana: (tying a string having golden and other beads on it round the neck of the bride). This is now regarded as the most important ornament which no woman will part with as long as her husband is alive. But the sūtras are entirely silent about it. Among the earliest references is one from Śaunaka smṛti¹²⁴² (ms. in Bombay University Library, folio 39 b). The Laghu-Āśvalāyana smṛti 15. 33 also prescribes it and the mantra to be employed when doing so. Gadādhara on Pār. gr. I. 8 says that maṅgala-sūtra should be worn and garlands be placed round their necks by the bride and bride-groom, though the sūtra of Pāraskara is silent on the point. The Baud. gr. śeṣa sūtra V. 5 in describing 'arkavivāha' speaks of māṅgalya sūtra to be tied to the plant. It is not clear whether it means the same as the maṅgalasūtra now tied by married women round their necks. About the nose-ring or nose ornament to which all women whose husbands are living attach the greatest importance in modern times, the sūtras, smṛtis and even the early digests are entirely silent. Dr. Altekar in his recent work 'Position of Hindu women in Hindu Civilization' pp. 362-64 holds from the evidence of the sculptures throughout India that the 'nose-ring was unknown throughout the whole of India during the entire Hindu period' (i. e. till about 1000 A. D.). Mr. P. K. Gode in Annals of B. O. R. I. vol. XIX (for 1939) pp. 313-34 adduces evidence to show that a nose-ornament was known to literary works from at least about 1000 A. D.:

Uttariyapṛānta-bandhana: (Tying turmeric pieces and betelnut on to the end of the upper garments of both and making a knot of their two garments together). Vide Sam. K. p. 799, S. Pr. p. 829.

*Airīṇidāna*¹²⁴³: (Presenting the mother of the bride-groom with several gifts in a large wicker-work basket with lamps

1242. ततो मङ्गलसूत्रं च ध्यात्वाभीष्टां च देवताम् । बद्ध्वा कण्ठप्रदेशे स्थापयन्नापि च शक्तिः ॥ शौनकः, बभ्रूयात्कन्यकाकण्ठे सूत्रं मणिसमन्वितम् । माङ्गल्यतन्तुनानेन मन्त्रेण स्यात् सदा सती ॥ लघुआश्व 15. 33. The मन्त्र is माङ्गल्यतन्तुनानेन भर्तृजीवनहेतुना । कण्ठे बध्नामि सुभगे सा जीव शरद्ः शतम् ॥. 'सूत्रेऽनुपलब्धमपि बध्नुवरयोर्मङ्गलसूत्रं गले मालाधारणं' etc. गदाधर on पारस्कर I. 1.

1243. सबन्धफलताम्बुलं दुग्धत्योर्विश्वर्धनम् । ऐरिण्याख्यं वंशपात्रं पक्वान्नैः परिपूरितम् ॥ करकै रुद्रसंख्यैस्तु सुवर्णेन समन्वितैः । एतावदैरिणीख्यं कर्तव्यं किल स्त्रिभिः ॥ quoted in सं. र. मा. p. 580. The request to show affection is made as follows 'अष्टवर्षा स्त्रियं कन्या पुत्रवत्पालिता मया । इदानीं तव पुत्राय दत्ता स्नेहेन पालयताम् ॥'. Appropriate changes are to be made, according to the age of the bride and the relationship of the bridegroom to the principal lady.

lighted and requesting her and the relatives of the bride-groom to treat the bride affectionately). Vide Sam. K. p. 811, Dharmasindhu p. 267. A basket of bamboo (*vaṁśa*) is used probably to symbolize the continuity of the family (*vaṁśa*) of the bride-groom. This is done when the bride is about to leave the father's place to go to the bride-groom's place after marriage.

Devakothhāpana and *Maṇḍapodevāsana* : (taking leave of the deities that had been invoked before the ceremonies began and taking down the *pandal*). Sam. K. pp. 532-533, S. R. M. pp. 555-556.

Two interesting questions arise viz. when can a marriage be said to be final and irrevocable and what would happen if a marriage is brought about by force or fraud.

Manu says (VIII. 168) 'what is given by force, what is enjoyed by force, also what has been caused to be written by force and all other transactions done by force, Manu has declared void;' and in VIII. 165 he places fraudulent transactions on the same footing as those brought about by force. There is great difficulty in applying these dicta to marriages. We saw above that Vas. Dh. S. (17. 73) and Baud. Dh. S. declare that if a girl has been carried off by force and has not been wedded with the repetition of sacred texts she may be given to another man in marriage. Viśvarūpa (p. 74) and Aparārka (p. 79) add a gloss that this can be done only after she has undergone a *prāyascitta*. From this it appears that if the marriage rites (like *saptapadī*) have been performed, the ancient law-givers would not have declared the marriage null and void even if the girl had been carried away by force or married by fraud. In modern works on Hindu Law the proposition is stated¹²⁴⁴ that 'a marriage, though performed with the necessary ceremonies, may be set aside by the court, if it was brought about by force or fraud.' This opinion is based on what was said in some decided cases e. g. *Aunjona Dasi v. Prahlada Chandra* (6 Bengal L. R. 243 at p. 254), *Venkatachargulu v. Rangacharyulu* I. L. R. 14 Mad. 316 at p. 320, *Mulchand v. Bhudhia* I. L. R. 22 Bom. 812. But in none of these cases was a marriage duly solemnized by the performance of the rites of *pāṇigrahaṇa*, going round the fire and *saptapadī*, set aside. There are mere

1244. Vide Mulla's Hindu Law (9th ed. of 1940) p. 504.

obiter dicta in these cases to the effect that a marriage may be set aside by the court for force or fraud.

The Vas. Dh. S. (17. 72) goes so far as to observe 'when a girl has been promised in marriage (and the promise has been confirmed) with water, if the intended bride-groom dies, but the Vedic mantras have not been recited, that girl still belongs to her father (and may be given to another)'. Kātyāyana¹²⁴⁵ has a similar verse 'if after choosing a girl as his bride, a man dies (or is unheard of) the girl after the lapse of three monthly periods may marry another'. And another verse of the same author says that if a person after giving a gratuity for a girl and *strīdhana* to her goes abroad, the girl may be kept unmarried for a year and then may be given to another. Manu (VIII. 227) says 'the Vedic mantras recited in the marriage rite are a sure indication of wife-hood; but their completion should be understood by the wise as occurring on taking the seventh step'. Aparārka p. 94 (on Yāj. I. 65) quotes a similar verse from Nārada (*strīpūṃsa* v. 3). The Udvāhatattva p. 129 quotes Yama to the same effect. So it follows that the marriage becomes complete and irrevocable the moment the *saptapadī* rite is performed, but before that rite is gone through there is a *locus poenitentiae* or a power to resile from what has been undertaken. Before the *saptapadī* is performed, if the bride-groom dies, the bride is still a maiden and not a widow and can be married again¹²⁴⁶. The most essential ceremonies of marriage are the *homa* and *saptapadī*. The *Dropaparva*¹²⁴⁷ says that promise of a daughter and giving a daughter with water are not certain means of knowing wife-hood but *saptapadī* is known to be the completion of marriage. If any of the other ceremonies are wanting that would not vitiate the marriage. In I. L. R. 12 Cal. 140, it has been held that the *vrddhi-śrāddha* is not an essential ceremony and its absence would not vitiate marriage.

1245. वरयित्वा तु यः कश्चित्पणश्येत्पुरुषो यदा । रक्तागमांस्त्रीनतीत्य कन्यान्वं वरयेद्वरम् ॥ कात्यायन quoted by अपरार्क p. 94; प्रदाय शुल्कं गच्छेद्यः कन्यायाः स्त्रीधनं तथा । धार्या सा वर्षमेकं तु देयान्यस्मै विधानतः ॥ कात्यायन quoted in सं. कौ. p. 737.

1246. नोदकेन न वाचा वा कन्यायाः पतिरिण्यते । पाणिग्रहणसंस्कारात् पतित्वं सप्तमे पदे ॥ यम quoted in य. र. p. 55, उद्वाहत्त्व p. 129 and in स्मृ. सु. (वर्णाश्रम) p. 138, which latter adds 'एवं च सप्तमपदादूर्वाक् परिणेतुर्मरणेपि न विधवा-त्वमित्युक्तं भवति । This last remark is made by the स्मृतिच० I. p. 82 also.

1247. मनोवाग्बुद्धिसंभाषा दत्ता चोदकपूर्वकम् ॥ पाणिग्रहणमन्त्राश्च प्रथितं वर-लक्षणम् ॥ न त्वेषा निश्चिता निष्ठा निष्ठा सप्तपदी स्मृता ॥ द्रोणपर्व 55, 15-16.

Even the Kāmasūtra ¹²⁴⁸ quotes the unanimous opinion of the ācāryas that marriages celebrated before fire as a witness cannot be revoked. In the case of śūdras there are no Vedic mantras and so in their case the completion of marriage will be determined according to custom. The digests like Gr. R. say (p. 57) that in the case of śūdras the marriage will be complete when the śūdra girl holds the fringe of the garment of the bride-groom.

Manu (IX. 47) declares 'once is the partition of inheritance made, once is a maiden given in marriage'. This rule really means that once the ceremony of marriage is completed by sapṭapadī, the marriage is irrevocable and the girl cannot thereafter be given to any one else. But if a girl is only promised in marriage and if a more worthy suitor subsequently presents himself, then the father may commit breach of promise and give her in marriage to another. Vide also Manu (IX. 71 and VIII. 98). Yāj. I. 65 states the rule and the exception 'A girl is given only once; a person who after having promised to give, deprives that man of her, is liable to the punishment of a thief; but if a more worthy suitor approaches, the father may deprive the former (suitor) of her (hand) though promised'. The Mahābhārata (Anuśāsana 44. 35) says that up to pāṇigrahaṇa any one may ask for the hand of a maiden (even though promised before to another). Nārada (striṣṭupṇṣa vv. 30 and 32) contains similar provisions. ¹²⁴⁹ Conversely, if a man agrees to marry a girl and subsequently discovers defects in her or if she is diseased or already deflowered or given by practising fraud he may refuse to marry her. Vide Manu IX. 72. If a guardian gives away a girl without declaring the defects of a girl (and they are subsequently discovered) the guardian should be fined in the highest amercement (according to Yāj. I. 66 and the lowest, according to Nārada, striṣṭupṇṣa v. 33). Aparārka ¹²⁵⁰ (p. 95) and others add that the defects referred to must be latent and not apparent or patent to view. If a suitor repudiates a girl who is free from defects he should be fined in the highest amercement and if he falsely accuses her of defects he should be fined one hundred paṇas (Yāj I. 66

1248. अग्निसाक्षिका हि विवाहा न निवर्तन्त इत्याचार्यसमयः। कामसूत्र III. 5. 13.

1249. कन्यायां दत्तशुल्कायां ज्यायांश्चेद्वर आब्रजेत्। धर्मार्थकामसंयुक्तो वाक्यं तत्राहृतं भवेत्॥ दत्त्वा न्यायेन यः कन्यां वराय न ददाति ताम्। अदुष्टश्चेद्वरो राज्ञा स दण्ड्यस्तत्र चौरवत्॥ नारदः, स्त्रीपुंस 30 and 32.

1250. कन्याप्रदः कन्यादोषं स्वयं जानन्वरेणाविदितं तस्य च प्रत्यक्षायोग्यमकथयित्वा यदि प्रयच्छति &c.। अपरार्क p. 95.

and Nārada, *stripuṃsa* v. 34). Nārada adds that he who abandons a faultless girl should be punished and should be made to marry the same girl.¹²⁵¹

Some of the *smṛtis* and digests are very much exercised over the question of the bride having menstruation while the marriage ceremonies are in progress and *homa* is about to be performed. Atri¹²⁵² (*Jivānanda* part 1, p. 11, chap. V) prescribes that having made the girl bathe with the *Haviṣmati* (with a verse in which the word *havis* occurs, probably Rg. X. 88. 1 or VIII. 72. 1) and to put on other garments and having offered an *āhuti* of clarified butter with the verse 'Yūñjate manaḥ' (Rg. V. 81. 1) the ceremonies should be proceeded with. The *Smṛtyarthasāra* (p. 17) first quotes two verses (the same as Atri's) and proposes an alternative method viz. that the bride and the bride-groom should stay separate from each other for three days and on the fourth day after ceremonially bathing themselves should perform the *homa* in the same fire.

1251. प्रतिगृह्य तु यः कन्यामदृष्टासुत्सृजेन्नरः । स विनेयस्त्वकामोऽपि कन्यां तामेव चोद्वहेत् ॥ नारद (स्त्रीपुंस 35).

1252. विवाहे वितते तन्त्रे होमकाल उपस्थिते । कन्यामृतमतीं दृष्ट्वा कथं कुर्वन्ति याज्ञिकाः ॥ हविष्मत्या स्नापयित्वा अन्यवस्त्रमलंकृता । युञ्जानामाहुतिं कृत्वा ततः कर्म प्रवर्तते ॥ अत्रि V. This is quoted as यज्ञपार्थ in सं. र. म. p. 500 and सं. कौ. p. 714, while the उद्वाहतरव quotes (pp. 146-147) two verses (one of which is the same as विवाहे and the other very similar) from बृहदयाज्ञवल्क्य as quoted in the गृहस्थरत्नाकर.

CHAPTER X

MADHUPARKA AND OTHER USAGES

Madhuparka: (offering of honey by way of honour to a distinguished guest). The word literally means 'a ceremony in which honey is shed or poured' (on the hand of a person). The word occurs in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad-Brāhmaṇa ¹²⁵³ 18. 4. The Nirukta (I. 16) also refers to the usage of offering madhuparka with the word madhuparka repeated thrice. It appears that the Ait. Br. III. 4 when it says that 'if the ruler of men comes as a guest or any one else deserving of honour comes, people kill a bull or a cow (that has contracted a habit of abortion)' refers to Madhuparka, ¹²⁵⁴ though that word is not actually used. In all gṛhya sūtras it is described at length. Most of the details are the same, the principal difference being that often different mantras are prescribed, though some (like the verse 'mātā rudrāṇām') are the same. The madhuparka ¹²⁵⁵ is offered to ṛtviks (priests officiating at sacrifices) when they are chosen for a sacrifice, to a snātaka who has come to one's house, to the king (who rules one's country, when he comes to one's house), to one's ācārya, father-in-law, paternal and maternal uncles. The Mānava gr. (I. 9. 1), Khādīra gr. IV. 4. 21, Yāj. I. 110 say that six persons deserve *arghya* (madhuparka) viz. ṛtvik, ācārya, the bride-groom, the king, the snātaka and a person who is dear to one. Some like Baud. ¹²⁵⁶ gr. I. 2. 65 add 'atithi' (guest). Vide Gaut. V. 25, Āp. gr. 13. 19-20, Āp. Dh. S. II. 3. 8. 5-6, Baud. Dh. S. II. 3. 63-64,

1253. तं होवाच किं विद्वांसो दारुभ्यानामन्य मधुपर्कं पिबसीति । जै. उ. ब्रा. 18. 4 ; जानते मधुपर्कं प्राह । निरुक्त I. 16.

1254. तद्यथैवाद्दो मधुप्यराज आगतेऽन्यस्मिन्वार्हति उक्षाणं वा वेहतं वा क्षदन्ते । ऐ. ब्रा. III. 4. This is quoted by मेधा० on मनु III. 119 and by हरदत्त on गौतम 17. 30.

1255. ऋत्विजो ब्रुत्वा मधुपर्कमाहरेत् । स्नातकायोपस्थिताय । राज्ञे च । आचार्य-
श्वशुरपितृव्यमातुलानां च । आश्व. गृ. I. 24. 1-4. The bride-groom, when he comes to the bride's house, is to be honoured with मधुपर्क because he also is generally a स्नातक. The आचार्य is one who performs one's उपनयन and teaches the Veda.

1256. तथैते अर्घ्या ऋत्विक् श्वशुरः पितृव्यो मातुल आचार्यो राजा वा स्नातकः प्रियो वरोऽतिथिरिति । बौ. गृ. I. 2. 65.

Manu III. 119, Sabhāparva 36. 23-24, Gobhila gr. IV. 10. 23-24. It is laid down that if the persons enumerated come to one's house within a year after madhuparka has been once offered, then it need not be offered again (in the same year), but when a marriage is being celebrated in one's house or a *yajña* is being performed, then madhuparka must be offered to those persons (even if one year has not elapsed since the madhuparka was previously offered). Vide Gaut. V. 26-27, Āp. Dh. S. II. 3. 8. 6, Yāj. I. 110, Khādīra gr. IV. 4. 26, Gobhila gr. IV. 10. 26. *Ritviks* are to be honoured in each *yajña*, even though several *yajñas* are performed in the same year (Yāj. I. 110). Manu (III. 120) says that a king and a *snātaka* are to be honoured with madhuparka only when they visit one's house in a *yajña*. Viśvarūpa (on Yāj. I. 109) says that madhuparka is to be offered to the king only and not to any *kṣatriya*. Medhātithi on Manu III. 119 says that when a king, whether a *kṣatriya* or not, comes to one's place madhuparka was to be offered, but not to a *śūdra* king. According to *gṛhya-parīśiṣṭa* the madhuparka is to be performed according to the rites prescribed in the *śākhā* of the receiver and not of the giver.¹²⁵⁷

The procedure of madhuparka is set out from the Āśv. gr.¹²⁵⁸ (I. 24. 5-26) "He pours honey into curds or clarified butter if no honey can be had. A seat,¹²⁵⁹ water for washing the feet, *arghya* water (i. e. water perfumed with flowers &c.), water for *ācamana*, honey mixture, a cow; every one of these they announce three times (to the person who has arrived). The person (to be honoured) should sit down on the seat made of northward pointed *darbha* grass with the verse¹²⁶⁰ 'I am the highest one among my kindred, as the sun among lights' (lightnings). Here I tread on whomsoever bears enmity to me.' Or he should repeat this verse after he has trodden on it. He should make (the host) wash his feet; the right foot he should

1257. वरस्य या भवेच्छाखा तच्छाखागृह्यचोदितः । मधुपर्कः प्रदातव्योऽप्यन्यज्ञास्त्रेपि दातारि ॥ quoted in सं. म. p. 823.

1258. Vide Appendix for text

1259. A *विष्टर* is a seat with 25 *दर्भ*s. 'पञ्चाशता भवेद्दर्भज्ञा तद्धर्मेन तु विष्टरः' परिशिष्ट quoted by सं. म. p. 821. *अर्घ्य* is water for washing the hands, in which flowers and perfume (like sandal-wood paste) have been mixed up. गन्धमालयाद्विर्लभ्युक्तमुदकमर्घ्यमित्युच्यते । नारायण on आश्व. गृ. I. 24 11.

1260. अहं वर्त्म &c.—This occurs in पारस्कर I. 3 and मानवगृह्य I. 9. 8 with slight variations.

hold out first to a brāhmaṇa (for washing) and the left to a sūdra. When his feet have been washed, he receives the arghya water in his joined hands and then he performs ācamana with the water for sipping with the formula 'thou art the seat (or first layer) of ambrosia'.¹²⁶¹ He should look at the madhuparka, when it is being brought to him, with the mantra ' I look at thee with the eye of Mitra '. He accepts it (the madhuparka) in the joined hands with the formula ' by the command (urging) of god Savitr, by the arms of Aśvins and the hands of Pūṣan, I accept thee ' (Vāj S. I. 24). He looks at it with the three ṛk verses ¹²⁶² ' the winds blow honey to the righteous man ' (Rg. I. 90. 6-8). He (takes it into his left hand), stirs it about thrice from left to right with the thumb and the finger next to the smallest and wipes (his fingers) towards the east with the formula ' may the Vasus eat thee with the Gāyatrī metre ' ; with the formula ' may the Rudras eat thee with the Triṣṭubh metre ' (he wipes fingers) towards the south ; with the formula ' may the Ādityas eat thee with the Jagatī metre ' towards the west ; with the formula ' may Viśve Devas eat thee with the Anuṣṭubh metre ' towards the north ; with the formula ' to the bhūtas (beings) thee ' he three times takes (some of the madhuparka materials) from out of the middle of it (and throws it up). He should partake of it for the first time with the formula ¹²⁶³ ' the milk of Virāj art thou ', for the second time with ' may I obtain the milk of Virāj ', the third time with ' in me may the milk of Padyā Virāj dwell '. He should not eat the whole madhuparka and should not eat to satiety. He should give the remainder (out of the madhuparka materials) to a brāhmaṇa towards the north ; but if no brāhmaṇa is available he should throw it into water ; or he may eat the whole. He then takes ācamana with the water intended for it with the

1261. The words असुतोपस्तरणमसि occur in the description of मधुपर्क in आप. मन्त्रपाठ II. 10. 3 and आप. गृ. 13. 13., मानवगृह्य. I. 9. 15.

1262. The three verses Rg. I. 90. 6-8 all begin with the word मधु ' मधु वाता ऋतायते मधु क्षरन्ति सिन्धवः ' (6), ' मधु नक्तमुतोषसो ' (7), ' मधुमाजो वनस्पतिः ' (8) and so are very appropriate to मधुपर्क. They occur in वाज. सं. 13. 27-29, are called मधुमती verses and employed in पार. गृ. I. 3, also in मानवगृह्य I. 9. 14.

1263. The three मन्त्र ' चिराजो दोहोसीति &c. ' occur in Pār. gr. I. 3 (but at the time of receiving the arghya water), Sāh. gr. III. 7. 5, Mānava gr. I. 9. 7 &c. Some held that he should partake of the madhuparka at one time after repeating the three mantras at once.

formula 'thou art the cover of ambrosia.'¹²⁶⁴ He sips water a second time with the formula 'truth! fame! fortune! may Fortune resort to me.' When he has sipped water, they announce to him the cow. Having muttered the words 'destroyed is my sin, my sin is destroyed', he says 'om, do it' if he desires to have the cow killed; if he is desirous of letting her go, he mutters the verse 'the mother of Rudras and daughter of Vasus'^{1264a} (Rg. VIII. 101. 15) and says 'let her go'. Let the madhuparka not be without flesh."

A few small matters may be noted. Several grhya-sūtras (such as the Mānava) describe madhuparka as a part of the marriage rite, while others like Āśv. describe it independently. Others like Hir. gr. (I. 12-13) describe it as part of Samāvartana. There is divergence about the substances mixed in offering madhuparka. Āśv. gr. and Āp. gr. (13. 10) prescribe a mixture of honey and curds or clarified butter and curds. Others like Pār. gr. I. 3 prescribe a mixture of three (curds, honey and butter). Āp. gr. (13. 11-12) states the view of some that those three may be mixed or five (those three with fried yava grain and barley). Hir. gr. I. 12. 10-12 gives the option of mixing three or five (curds, honey, ghee, water and ground grain). The Kauśika sūtra (92) speaks of nine kinds of mixtures viz. Brāhma (honey and curds), Aindra (of pāyasa), Saumya (curds and ghee), Pauṣṇa (ghee and mantha), Sārasvata (milk and ghee), Mausala (wine and ghee, this being used only in Sautrāmaṇi and Rājasūya sacrifices), Vārūṇa (water and ghee), Śrāvāṇa (sesame oil and ghee), Pārivrājaka (sesame oil and oil cake). The Mānava gr. I. 9. 22 says that the Veda declares that the madhuparka must not be without flesh and so it recommends that if the cow is let loose, goat's meat or pāyasa (rice cooked in milk) may be offered; the Hir. gr. I. 13. 14 says that other meat should be offered; Baud. gr. says (I. 2. 51-54) that when the cow is let off, the flesh of a goat or ram may be offered or some forest flesh (of a deer &c.) may be offered, as there can be no madhuparka without flesh or if one is unable to offer flesh one may cook ground grains. As the cow became sacred, it became unthinkable to kill her and so other flesh was

1264. अमुतापिधानमसि—this मन्त्र occurs also in आप. म. पा. II. 10. 4 and आप. गृ. 13. 13.

1264a. The verse माता रुद्राणां (referring to the cow) is mentioned in several गृह्यसूत्रs such as the मानव (I. 9. 23), पार. (I. 3), बौ. गृ. I. 2. 50.

offered. When even flesh-eating came to be abhorred, then only pāyasa and such other things were recommended. The Ādiparva (60. 13-14) refers to Janamejaya's reception of Vyāsa with madhuparka and Vyāsa's letting the cow loose. This abhorrence of flesh-eating will be dealt with later on. In modern times there is generally no madhuparka except in marriage and then too it is a simple matter and the elaborate procedure prescribed in some of the gṛhya sūtras is hardly ever followed.

Certain peculiar ceremonies relating to marriage may now be described very briefly. In order to avert early widowhood (which was judged from her horoscope) for the girl to be married, a ceremony called *kumbha-vivāha* was performed. It is described in Sam. Pr. (p. 868), Nirṇayasindhu p. 310, Sam. K. (p. 746), S. R. M. (p. 528) and other works. On the day previous to the marriage a jar of water in which a golden image of Viṣṇu is dipped is decked with flowers &c. and the girl is surrounded in a network of threads, Varuṇa and Viṣṇu are worshipped and prayed to give long life to the intended bride-groom. Then the jar is taken out and broken in a pool of water and then water is sprinkled over the girl with five twigs and to the accompaniment of Rg. VII. 49 and then brāhmaṇas are fed.

The Sam. Pr. (pp. 868-869) speaks of *Aśvattha-vivāha* which is like *kumbha-vivāha* and performed for good luck to the bride and averting widowhood. Here the *Aśvattha* tree is substituted for the jar and a golden image of Viṣṇu is worshipped. The image is then given to a brāhmaṇa.

Arkavivāha: When a man has the misfortune to lose by death two wives one after another, before marrying a third wife he goes through a ceremony of marriage with the *arka* plant. This is described in Sam. Pr. pp. 876-889, Sam. K. p. 819, Nirṇayasindhu, p. 328. It is described in Baud. gr. śeṣasūtra V. 5 also.

Another question which takes up much space in ancient works but which is now of hardly any importance is *parivedana*. When a male got married before his elder brother or where a person married a younger girl before her elder sister was married, this act was called *parivedana* and was severely condemned as a serious encroachment on the rights of seniority and as a sin. Gaut. 15. 18 and Āp. Dh. S. (II. 5. 12. 22) declare that a younger brother married before an elder brother, and an elder

brother married after a younger brother are sinners, and should not be invited at a śrāddha. Āp. adds that one who marries a younger sister before her elder sister is married, one who marries an elder sister after the younger sister has been married, one whose younger brother has kindled the sacred fires or offered a soma sacrifice before him (and a younger brother who kindles the sacred fires or offers soma sacrifice before his elder brother) are also equally sinful. Vas. Dh. S. I. 18, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 37. 15-17 also have similar provisions and Vas. Dh. S. (20. 7-10) prescribes *kṛcchra* penance of twenty days for the husband of the younger sister married before her elder sister and for the husband of the elder sister married after the younger one, requires each of them to offer his wife to the other for the sake of form (to remove the slur) and then to wed her again with his assent.¹²⁶⁵ Vide Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 40 also. The younger brother who marries before the elder brother is called *parivettā* or *parivividāna* (Manu III. 171, Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 12. 22) or *parivindaka* (Yāj. I. 223), the elder brother before whom the younger brother marries is called *parivitta* or *parivinna* or *parivitti* (Manu III. 171), the younger sister who marries before the elder sister is called *agredidhiṣū* (Gaut. 15. 15, Vas. I. 18) or *parivedinī*, the elder sister before whom her younger sister marries is called *didhiṣū*. The husbands of these two last respectively bear the appellations *agre-didhiṣūpati* and *didhiṣūpati*. The father or other guardian who gives away the girl in any of these cases of *parivedana* is called *paridāyī* or *paridātā*. The younger brother who kindles the sacred fire before the elder is styled '*paryādhātṛ*' and the elder brother who is so treated is called '*paryāhita*' (Gaut. 15. 18). Manu III. 172 (which is almost the same as Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 30 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 54. 16) says that the *parivettā*, the *parivitta*, the girl whom the younger brother marries before the elder, the man who gives away the girl in marriage and the officiating priest—these five all fall into hell¹²⁶⁶ (and must perform the penance of Cāndrāyana according to Viṣṇu). The Mit. on

1265. Vide Mit. on Yāj. III. 265 explaining Vas. Dh. S. '(पविक्ता) कुच्छ्रातिकुच्छ्रौ चरित्वा तस्मै ज्येष्ठाय तां स्वोदां दत्त्वा ब्रह्मचर्याद्वनं भैक्षवद् शुष्पपरिभवपरिहारार्थं निवेद्य पुनरुद्गहेत् । तस्मैव ...स्वोदां ज्येष्ठाय निवेदितां तेन चावुज्ञावायुद्गहेत् । '

1266. The story of Jacob and the two sisters Leah (elder) and Rachel (younger) in Genesis XXIX shows that among the ancient Jews also there was a custom prohibiting the marriage of a younger sister before the elder sister.

Yāj. III. 265 quotes Hārta-dharmasūtra on this topic to the same effect. Medhātithi on Manu III. 171 refers to the view of some that if a son kindles the sacred fire before his father, the same rule applies as between brothers and then refutes that view. Aparārka p. 446 quotes Uśanas that a person may kindle sacred fires even before his father or grandfather with the latter's consent. The Trikāṇḍamaṇḍana (I. 76-77) says that there is no sin in taking agnihotra and performing a sacrifice before an elder brother and the incurring of sin is only restricted to marriage, while the Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 13) holds the opposite view that one should not kindle the Vedic fires before one's father even with the latter's consent. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. (37. 15-17) enumerates parivedana among upapātakas. Gaut. (18. 18-19) prescribes that if an elder brother has gone to a foreign country his younger brother must wait twelve years before he takes a wife or kindles sacred fires or six years according to some.¹²⁶⁷ There is a similar text of Vas. quoted by Aparārka p. 445.

In certain cases marrying or kindling sacred fires before an elder brother is not condemned. Medhātithi on Manu III. 171 quotes a verse 'One need not wait where the elder brother is a lunatic, or is a sinner, or leprous, impotent, or suffering from tuberculosis' and remarks that this is only illustrative (i. e. one need not wait where the elder brother has no adhikāra for marriage or for kindling fires)¹²⁶⁸. Vide Atri v. 105 (Anan. ed.) for a similar verse. Another verse of Atri (v. 106) says that there is no blemish in marrying before the elder brother, if the latter is impotent or gone abroad, or *patita* or has become a recluse or is devoted to Yogaśāstra.¹²⁶⁹ Vide Gobhila smṛti (I. 72-74) for similar verses (which are quoted by the Gr. R. p. 90), Trikāṇḍamaṇḍana I. 68-74, Smṛtyarthasāra p. 13 and Sam. Pr. pp. 760-766.

The ideas about the wrong committed by a younger brother or sister marrying before an elder one reach far back into Vedic antiquity. In the Tai. Br. (III 2. 9) there is a story that the gods transferred (rubbed off) their sin to the Āpyas and then

1267. भ्रातरि चैवं ज्यायसि कनीयान्कन्यागन्तुपयमेष्टु । षड्वित्येके । गौतम 18. 18-19.

1268. उन्मत्तः किल्बिषी कुष्टी पतितः क्लीब एव च । राजयक्ष्मामयावी च न योग्यः स्वात् प्रतीक्षितुम् ॥ quoted by मेधा on मनु III. 171 and अपराङ्ग p. 445.

1269. क्लीब देशान्तरस्थे च पतिते व्रजितेपि वा । योगशास्त्राभियुक्ते च न दोषः परिषेदने ॥ अत्रि 106. This is quoted as शातातप's by अपराङ्ग p. 445.

there is a succession of persons who are all guilty of blame or sin and each preceding one among whom is said to have passed it on to each succeeding one viz. sūryābhyudita, sūryābhinimrukta, kunakhin, śyāvadat, agredidhiṣū, parivitta, vīrahan, brahmahan. The Vas. Dh.¹²⁷⁰ S. I. 18 arranges persons called sinners (*enasvin*) almost in the same order as in the Tai. Br. Here (in Tai. Br.) we have parivitta and agredidhiṣu. In another passage of the Tai. Br. (III. 4. 4) while speaking of Puruṣamedha, it is said that the parivitta is consigned as a victim to ill-luck (*nir-ṛti*), the parivividāna to distress (*ārti*) and the didhiṣūpati to non-success (*arāddhi*).

1270. सूर्याभ्युदितः सूर्याभिनिमुक्तः कुनखी श्यावदन्तः परिवित्तिः परिवेत्ताग्नेदिधि-
शूपतिर्वीरहा ब्रह्मोज्झ इत्येनस्त्विनः । वसिष्ठ I. 18.

CHAPTER XI

POLYGAMY, POLYANDRY AND RIGHTS AND DUTIES ON MARRIAGE

Polygamy: Though monogamy¹²⁷¹ seems to have been the ideal and was probably the rule, the Vedic literature is full of references to polygamy. Rg. X. 145 (same as Atharvaveda III. 18) is a hymn meant as a charm for weaning the husband's affections from a co-wife. It occurs in the Āp. M. P. (I. 15) and Āp. gr. IX. 6-8 prescribes it for winning over the husband to oneself and for causing estrangement between him and one's co-wife. Rg. X.¹²⁷² 159 is a hymn attributed to Śacī, wife of Indra, who claims to have vanquished and killed her co-wives and to rule supreme over Indra and all men. This hymn also occurs in Āp. M. P. (I. 16) and is prescribed by the Āp. gr. (IX. 9) as a charm always to be repeated by a wife for suppressing her co-wives. In a verse (Rg. I. 105. 8) Trita who had fallen into a well declares 'the rib-like sides (of the well) cause me pain all round as co-wives make it too hot (for the husband or for themselves)'¹²⁷³. The Tai. S. (VI. 6. 4. 3) gives a dogmatic and somewhat picturesque explanation of polygamy that 'on one sacrificial post he passes round two girdles, so one man secures two wives; that he does not pass one girdle round two posts, so one wife does not obtain two husbands'. The Ait. Br. (12. 11) similarly declares 'therefore one man has many wives, but one wife has not many husbands at the

1271. Vide Rg. X. 85. 26 and 46. These are पूषा त्वेनो नयतु हस्तयुद्धाश्विनान् त्वा प्रवहता रथेन । युहान्गच्छ युहपत्नी यथासौ वक्षिणी त्वं विदूयमा वदासि ॥...सम्राज्ञी अधि देवेषु ॥ (last quoted above in n. 1229). The word *dampatī* (which occurs very frequently in the Rg.) conveys in several places the idea of a monogamous marriage. Vide Rg. V. 3. 2, VIII. 31. 5, X. 68. 2.

1272. Vide असपत्ना सपत्न्यौ जयन्त्यभिभूवरी । आदृक्षमन्यासां वर्चो राधो अस्थेयसामिव ॥ समजैषमिमा अहं सपत्नीरभिभूवरीः । यथाहमस्य वीरस्य विराजानि जनस्य च ॥ ऋ. X. 159. 5-6. आप. न. पा. reads differently.

1273. सं मा तपन्त्यभितः सपत्नीरिव पर्शवः । ऋ. I. 105. 8; vide Rg. X. 116. 10 (आदित्यतिमकुण्ठतं कनीनाम्) where the Āsvins are said to have made क्यवन the husband of maidens.

same¹²⁷⁴ time'. The Tai. Br. (III. 8. 4.) when speaking of the *Aśva-medha* says 'the wives anoint (the horse); wives are indeed a form of prosperity'¹²⁷⁵. In the Śat. Br. (XIII. 4. 1. 9., S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 349) it is said, 'four¹²⁷⁶ wives are in attendance viz. the consecrated queen (*mahiṣī*), the favourite wife (*vāvātā*), the discarded wife (*parivṛktā* or *parivṛkti*) and the *pālāgālī* (who is low-born)'. The Tai. S. I. 8. 9 refers to the *mahiṣī* and *parivṛkti*. In the Vāj. S. (23. 24, 26, 28) there are verses which are addressed to the *mahiṣī*, *vāvātā* and *parivṛkti* by the *brahmā*, *udgātā* and *hotā* priests respectively. *Harīścandra* is said to have had a hundred wives (Ait. Br. 33. 1). It is not to be supposed that polygamy was confined only to kings and nobles. The great philosopher *Yājñavalkya* had two wives, *Kātyāyanī* who was worldly-minded and *Maitreyī* who thirsted for the knowledge of *brahma* and immortality (Br. Up. IV. 5. 1-2 and II. 4. 1).

In the times of the *sūtras*, some sages wanted to hold up a high ideal. The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 5. 11. 12-13) declares that when a man has a wife who is endowed with *dharma* and progeny, he shall not marry another wife; but if any one of the two (*dharma* and progeny) is wanting (in the case of the wife), he may marry another before he has consecrated the sacred *śrauta* fires. In another place Āp. (I. 10. 28. 19) prescribes that one who abandons his (faultless) wife should put on the skin of an ass with the hair outside and should beg for alms at seven houses for six months.¹²⁷⁷ *Nārada* (*śrīpūrṇa* v. 95)

1274. यदेकस्मिन्पुंषे द्वे रक्षणे परिव्ययति तस्मादेको द्वे जाये विन्दते यत्नैकां रक्षणां द्वयोर्यूपयोः परिव्ययति तस्मान्नैका द्वौ पती विन्दते । तै. सं. VI. 6. 4. 3; vide also तै. सं. VI. 5. 1. 4 'तस्मादेको बह्वीजाया विन्दते'; तस्मादेकस्य बह्व्यो जाया भवन्ति नैकस्यै बह्वः सहपतयः । ऐ. ब्रा. 12. 11.

1275. पत्नयोऽभ्यञ्जन्ति । श्रिया वा एतद्रूपं यत्पत्नयः । श्रियमेवासिंस्तद्वधति । तै. ब्रा. III. 8. 4; vide शतपथब्रा. XIII. 2. 6. 7 for the same words.

1276. चतस्रो जाया उपकृता भवन्ति महिषी बावाता परिवृक्ता पालागली । शतपथ XIII. 4. 1. 9. In *रामायण* बालकाण्ड 14. 35 the first three out of these four are mentioned in connection with *अश्वमेध* 'होताध्वर्युस्तथोद्गाता ह्येन समयोजयन् । महिष्या परिवृक्त्या च बावातामपरां तथा ॥'. In Rg. X. 102. 11 the word *परिवृक्ता* occurs which probably means the discarded wife.

1277. धर्मप्रजासंपन्ने दारे नान्यां कुर्वीत । अन्यतराभावे कार्या प्रागग्न्याधेयात् । आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 11. 12-13; खराजिनं बहिलोमं परिधाय दारव्यतिक्रमिणे भिक्षामिति सप्तगाराणि चरेत् । सा वृत्तिः वण्मासान् । आप. ध. सू. I. 10. 28. 19; vide बृहत्संहिता chap 74. 13 where this प्रायश्चित्त for the husband is mentioned and it is said that it is never observed by men. अनुकूलामबाग्दुष्टां दक्षां साध्वीं प्रजावतीम् । त्यजन् भार्यामवस्थाप्यो राज्ञा दण्डेन नृपसा ॥ नारद (छाँडि 95).

recommends that the king should bring round to the proper path by inflicting heavy fines a husband who abandons a wife that is obedient, not harsh of tongue, vigilant (in household work), chaste and endowed with sons. Even Kauṭ. (III. 2) prescribes that a husband should wait for eight years (before marrying another) if his wife gives birth to no child after one delivery or is sonless or is barren; he should wait for ten if she bears only still-born children, twelve years if she gives birth to daughters only. Then if he is anxious for a son he may marry another. If he violates these rules he must pay her gratuity, some wealth as *stridhana* and money (prescribed to be given) on supersession and besides a fine (to the king) of 24 *panas*.¹²⁷⁸ So far Kautilya appears to have only stated the ideal, because he follows up this remark by another statement which probably represented the commonly held popular view 'a man may marry several wives after giving *śulka* and *stridhana* to those to whom nothing had been given at the time of marriage and money on supersession (*ādhivedanika*) and suitable provision for livelihood; for women are (married) for procreating sons.' Though Āp. and others held up the ideal of monogamy and Nārada and others prescribed a fine for marrying a second wife without sufficient cause, it is extremely doubtful whether a man was ever punished by the king for so doing. Manu V. 80 and Yāj. I. 80 both say that a husband may supersede a wife (and marry another) if she drinks wine, suffers from a disease (of long standing), is deceitful, is extravagant in expenditure, speaks harsh words, and gives birth to female children only. Manu V. 81 and Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 65 allow a husband to marry another woman at once if the first is harsh of tongue. Devala¹²⁷⁹ quoted in the Gr. R. says that the *śūdra* may have only one wife, a *vaiśya* two, a *kṣatriya* three and a *brāhmaṇa* four, but a king may have as many as he desires. This only reflected the prevailing practice of kings. The *Ādiparva*¹²⁸⁰ gravely remarks 'to have many wives is no *adharma* on the part of men, but to violate

1278. Vide Manu IX, 81 and Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 65 for similar periods of waiting. Vide Yāj. II. 148 for the amount of *ādhivedanika* to be given by the husband.

1279. एका शूद्रस्य वैश्यस्य द्वे तिस्रः क्षत्रियस्य च । चतस्रो ब्राह्मणस्य स्युर्भार्या राज्ञो यथेच्छतः ॥ देवल quoted in गृहस्थरत्नाकर p. 85.

1280. न चाप्यधर्मः कल्याण बहुपत्नीकता दृष्टात् । स्त्रीणामधर्मः सुमहान्मर्तुः पूर्वस्य लङ्घने ॥ आदिपर्व 160. 36.

the duty owed to the first husband would be a great *adharma* in the case of women.' The Mahābhārata (Mausala-parva V. 6) tells us that Vāsudeva¹²⁸¹ (Kṛṣṇa) had sixteen thousand wives. Several kings had in historic times as many as a hundred wives. For example, the Cedi king Gāṅgeyadeva alias Vikramāditya is said to have obtained *mukti* (salvation) at Prayāga with his hundred wives¹²⁸² (vide Jabalpur plate of Yaśaḥkarnadeva dated 1122 A.D. in E. I. vol. II. p. 4 and the Khaira plates of the same king in E. I. vol. XII. p. 205). In Bengal the evils of Kulinism are well known. The reasons for this treatment of women were many, such as the great spiritual importance of sons, early marriages and consequent illiteracy of women, the spread of the idea of the ceremonial impurity of women and their being equated with *sūdras* and lastly the idea of the complete dependence of women on men. One must not be carried away, however, by the notion that marrying many wives was either very common or was not looked down upon. Steele (in 'Law and Custom of Hindoo Castes,' first published in 1826) who had the most unique opportunities for observing the practices of numerous castes in the Dekhan in the first decades of the 19th century writes (p. 168, ed. of 1868) 'a man may marry as many wives as his inclination or circumstances allow. Marriages in succession, in consequence of the death of a former wife, are very common; but polygamy is not usual except on account of the barrenness of the first wife. It is practised in the Koonbee castes'. Vide also Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. I (ed. of 1907) p. 482 'Although in theory polygamy is allowed, in practice a second wife is rarely taken while the first is alive and in India as a whole there are only 1011 wives to every 1000 husbands so that even if no husbands have more than two wives all but 11 per thousand must be monogamous'. The state of the modern case law is unsatisfactory. The Bombay High Court has held that the mere fact that the husband has married a second wife would not entitle the first wife to refuse to stay with the husband. Vide *Motilal v. Chanchal*, 4 Bom. L. R. 107. In *Virasami v. Appasami*, 1 Madras High Court Reports, p. 375, the court held that a Hindu may marry any number of wives, although he may have a wife or wives living. It is submitted with great respect that that is

1281. षोडश स्त्रीसहस्राणि वासुदेवपरिग्रहः । तासामासीन्सहानादो बृह्देवार्जुनमागतम् ॥ मौसलपर्व V. 6.

1282. प्राप्ते प्रयागवटमूलनिवेशबन्धौ सार्धं ज्ञतेन गृहिणीभिरसुत्र सुक्तिम् । E. I. vol. II. p. 4.

not the ideal or the view of the best writers, nor is such a view held by the majority of Indian jurists of ancient and medieval times. Modern opinion of educated people is most favourable to making marriages monogamous and efforts are being made to secure absolute monogamy by legislative action. For example, the Madras Nambudri Act (Madras Act XXI of 1933) forbids a Nambudri brāhmaṇa from marrying a second wife when the first is living except in three cases viz. (1) when the first wife is afflicted with an incurable disease for over five years, (2) when she has not borne a child within ten years of marriage, and (3) when she becomes an outcast.

Polyandry

The passages cited above (note 1274) from the Ait. Br. and the Tai. S. that a woman cannot have several husbands at the same time make it clear that in those ancient times polyandry was unheard¹²⁸³ of. Not a single Vedic passage can be cited which clearly refers to the practice of polyandry. The most glaring example of polyandry in Sanskrit literature is that of Draupadī as the wife of the five Pāṇḍavas. Probably the tradition was too firmly rooted to allow the author to ignore it. The Mahābhārata shows that all were shocked by the resolve of Yudhiṣṭhira to make Draupadī the wife of the five brothers. Dhṛṣṭadyumna (Ādiparva¹²⁸⁴ 195. 27-29) tries vehemently to dissuade Yudhiṣṭhira, who tries to justify his action on the ground of ancient practice and the agreement of the brothers to share everything that any one of them may secure. But Yudhiṣṭhira could¹²⁸⁵ ferret out (Ādi. chap. 196) only two instances (rather mythical) in support of the practice viz. of Jaṭilā Gautamī (who had seven sages as husbands) and of Vārkeṣī who had ten Prācetasā brothers as husbands. It is this fact that has led many scholars to regard the Pāṇḍus as a non-Aryan tribe somehow grafted on the Aryan stock and represented as relatives of the Kauravas by the editor of the

1283. Vide Cambridge History of India, vol I. p. 88, Vedic Index I. p. 479.

1284. एकस्य बह्व्यो विहिता महिष्यः कुरुनन्दन । नैकस्या बहवः पुंसः श्रूयन्ते पतयः कश्चित् । लोकवेदविरुद्धं त्वं नाधर्मं धर्मविच्छुचिः । कर्तुमर्हसि कौन्तेय कस्मात्ते बुद्धिरीदृशी । आदि. 195. 27-29; vide समापर्व 68.35 where Karna speaks of Draupadī as 'bandhakī' (a harlot), because she had many men as her husbands.

1285. बुधिशिर replies 'सूक्ष्मो धर्मो महाराज नास्य विज्ञो वयं गतिम् । पूर्वेषामानु-पूर्वेषां यातं वर्त्मानुयामहे ॥'

Mahābhārata. This too also sounds somewhat far-fetched. Kumārilaḥṭṭa in his *Tantravārtika* cuts this Gordian knot by putting forward three explanations, one of which boldly asserts that there were many Draupadis very similar to each other and so the epic figuratively speaks of one Draupadi only.¹²⁸⁶ There were really five Draupadis (and not one) married separately to the five Pāṇḍavas. In the *Dharmaśāstra* works there are traces of the knowledge of the practice of polyandry. Āp. Dh. S. (II. 10. 27, 2-4) refers to it 'One shall not make over (his wife) to strangers (for a son by *niyoga*), but only to one who is a sagotra; for they declare that a bride is given to the family (of brothers and not to one brother alone); that (*niyoga*) is forbidden on account of the weakness of men's senses.' Similarly Bṛhaspati, while illustrating the proposition that the king should not disturb popular usages even though they may be improper, cites several such practices among which he mentions 'In some other countries there is the most reprehensible practice of a brother taking (as wife) the widow of his deceased brother, and the practice of delivering a maiden to a family; similarly among the Pārasikas (Persians) matches with a mother are seen'.¹²⁸⁷ Dr. Jolly is wrong in thinking that Bṛhaspati refers to polyandry as practised in the south. Bṛhaspati first referred to the practice of marrying a maternal uncle's daughter as prevalent amongst the southerners (*dākṣiṇātyas*) in his day and then adds that a practice of giving a girl to the family is in vogue in other countries. So he clearly means countries other than those of the *dākṣiṇātyas*. Prof. Keith appears to follow Dr. Jolly without any independent examination of the original passage (in E. R. E. vol. 8 on marriage, p. 453). Just as Bṛhaspati refers to the Pārasikas, he speaks of polyandry as current among other countries (but not Aryan India). There are two types of polyandry,¹²⁸⁸ one matriarchal (where a woman forms simultaneous alliances with two or more men who are not necessarily relations of each other and therefore succession is

1286. अथवा बह्व्य एव ताः सदृशरूपा द्रौपद्य एकत्वेनोपचरिता इति स्वयहाराया-
पत्या गम्यते ॥ तन्त्रवार्तिक p. 209

1287. विरुद्धाः प्रतिदृश्यन्ते दक्षिणात्येषु संप्रति। स्वमातुलसुतोद्वाहो मातृवन्धुत्व-
द्वेषितः ॥ अभर्तुकभ्रातृभायार्थद्वेषणं चातिद्वेषितम्। कुले कन्याप्रदानं च देशेष्वन्येषु दृश्यते।
तथा मातृविवाहोऽपि पारसीकेषु दृश्यते। बृहस्पति quoted in the स्मृतिच. I. 10, स्मृतिषु.
(वर्णाश्रम p. 130). Vide Jolly's *Recht und Sitte*, English translation,
p. 102.

1288. Vide *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, vol. I. p. 483 (1907).

traced through the female) and the other fraternal, where a woman becomes the wife of several brothers. The former practice once prevailed among the Nairs on the Malabar coast, but it has now died out. The latter form of polyandry is still to some extent found in Kumaon, Garhwal and among peoples in the Himalayan area up to Assam.¹²⁸⁹ Pandit Bhagwanlal Indraji (I. A. vol. 8, p. 88) says that in Kumaun between the Tons and Jumna river about Kalsi, Rajputs, brāhmanas and śūdras all practise polyandry and the children are attributed to the eldest brother who is alive. Nilakaṇṭha,¹²⁹⁰ the commentator of the Mahābhārata, raises (on Ādiparva 104. 35) the question about Draupadi's marrying five husbands and refers to the practice among very low castes in his day of one woman having two or three husbands.

Mutual rights and duties of husband and wife

Manu (IX. 101-102) lays down in a concise form the obligations of husband and wife viz. 'they should not prove false to each other till death (as regards dharma, artha and kāma) and that their constant endeavour should be not to be separate from each other and not to break faith with each other (as to those three goals of human life)'. The detailed rights and duties of the husband and wife will be unfolded as we proceed.

The first duty of the husband and the privilege of the wife was to require and to give respectively her co-operation in all religious acts. This has been so from the most ancient times. In Rg. I. 72. 5 it is said¹²⁹¹ that 'they, accompanied by their wives, worshipped the fire who is worthy of worship'. In another place it is said 'when you make the husband and wife of one mind, they anoint thee with ghee like a well-placed friend'. In the Tai. Br. III. 7. 5 occurs a passage 'may the wife unite with her husband by means of the good deeds (done by

1289. Vide the authorities quoted in Jolly's *Recht und Sitte* (Eng. tr. p. 103 foot-notes).

1290. कथं तर्हि द्वौपद्याः पञ्च पाण्डवा मारिषायाश्च दश प्राचेतसा इदानीं तनानां नीचानां च द्वित्रादयः पतयो दृश्यन्ते इति चेन्न देवचरितं चरेदिति न्यायेन देवताकल्पेषु पर्यङ्गयोगयोगात् नीचानां पशुप्रायाणां चाचारस्याप्रामाण्याच्च अधिकारिविषयत्वाच्च नियोगस्य । नीलकण्ठ on आदिपर्व 104. 35.

1291. संजानाना उपसद्विद्वभिर्भु पत्नीवन्तो नमस्यं नमस्यन् । ऋ. I. 72. 5; अजान्ति मित्रं सुधितं न गोभिर्यद्वम्पती समनसा कृणोषि । ऋ. V. 3. 2; स पत्नी पत्या सुकृतेन गच्छताम् । यज्ञस्य युक्तौ पुण्यावधूताम् । संजानाना विजहतामरातीः । दिवि ज्योतिरजरमारभेताम् । तै. ब्रा. III. 7. 5.

both), they two became yoked like oxen to the sacrifice; may the two be of one mind and destroy their foes; may they attain non-aging light in heaven'. The same verse with slight variations occurs in the Kāthaka Sam. V. 4 and is relied upon by Śabara on Jaimini VI. 1. 21. This indicates that they were supposed to enjoy the fruits of their actions together. We saw above (p. 551) how in the Āsvamedha the wife anoints the horse, how in marriage the bride offers handfuls of fried grain into fire. It has already been seen (note 1208) that the Āp. Dh. S. (II. 6. 13. 17-19) requires that from the time of marriage the husband and wife work together in religious acts, that they share the reward of such acts together and that they both have dominion over the wealth of the family and that the wife can make gifts in the absence of the husband if occasion necessitates. The Āśv. gr. (I. 8. 5) prescribes¹²⁹² that the fire kindled at marriage is carried by the married pair to their home (in a vessel) and that (I. 9. 1-8) since the day of marriage, the husband should worship the domestic fire himself or his wife or his son or his daughter or pupil (may offer worship in his absence), that if fire goes out, some teachers say that the wife should observe a fast, the domestic fire should be worshipped in the evening with an *āhuti* and the formula 'agnaye svāhā' and in the morning with an *āhuti* and the formula 'sūryāya svāhā' and there is to be a second oblation each time silently (to Prajāpati). According to the commentator some said that the wife and daughter could not perform the homa as they had no privilege to learn mantras, that they could only kindle the fire, while others said they could do so. In the grhya fire kindled at marriage one was to offer the daily mahāyajñas (Gaut. 5. 6-8) and as regards baliharapa, Gobhila gr. (I. 4. 16-19) says that both husband and wife should offer *balis*, or a brāhmaṇa may offer for them, or the wife may offer in the evening and the husband in the morning¹²⁹³. Manu (III. 121) says that from food cooked in the evening the wife should

1292. विवाहाग्निमयतोऽजस्रं नयन्ति । आश्व. गृ. I. 8. 5. पाणिग्रहणादि गृह्यं परिचरेत्स्वयं पत्न्यापि वा पुत्रः कुमार्यन्तेवासी वा । ... यदि तृपशाम्येत्यत्युपवसेदित्येके । ... अग्नये स्वाहेति सार्यं जुहुयात्सूरीय स्वाहेति प्रातस्तूर्णीं द्वितीये उभयत्र । आश्व. गृ. I. 9. 1, 3, 8.

1293. आप. गृ. was against allowing women to perform homa even in grhya fire except in the case of *kāmya* rites and *bali*. स्त्रियाहुपतेन क्षारलवणावराजसंघृष्टस्य च होमं परिचक्षते । यथोपदेष्टं काम्यानि बल्यश्च । आप. गृ. 8. 3-4.

offer balis, but without mantras. This shows that though gradually women began to lose the right to repeat Vedic mantras (as shown by Manu), still she had a hand in the religious rites. She had to perform many acts in sacrifices, such as unhusking grain in sthālīpāka (*vide* Hir. gr. I. 23. 3), washing the slaughtered animal (compare Śat. Br. III. 8. 2 and Gobhila gr III. 10. 29), looking at the *ājya* in śrauta sacrifices. The Pūrvamīmāṃsā¹²⁹⁴ (VI. 1. 17-21) establishes that both husband and wife own property and should join together in performing sacrifices, but that the male sacrificer alone is ordinarily to do every act in all religious ceremonies except such matters as are expressly declared to be performed by the wife also or alone (as e. g. observing celibacy, uttering benediction &c.). It is on account of the necessity of associating the wife in all religious acts that the hero Rāma was compelled to celebrate sacrifices with a golden image of Sītā by his side.¹²⁹⁵ Pāṇini (IV. 1. 33) derives the word *patnī* and says that it can be only applied to a wife who shares in the sacrifice (and its reward). It follows that wives who are not or cannot join with their husbands in yajñas are only *jāyās* or *bhāryās* (but not *patnīs*). The Mahābhāṣya says¹²⁹⁶ that the wife of a śūdra is called *patnī* only by analogy (as a śūdra himself has no adhikāra for yajña, his wife can much less have it). It is on account of this close association of the wife in all sacrifices (either śrauta or smārta) that the wife if she dies before her husband is burnt with the sacred fire or fires and with the sacrificial vessels and implements (Manu V. 167-168, Yāj. I. 89). The Tai. Br. III. 7. 1 says 'half of the sacrifice is destroyed in the case of that sacrificer whose wife is (in her monthly course and therefore) unavailable on the sacrificial day.'¹²⁹⁷

But the wife is not authorized to do religious acts independently of her husband or without his consent. Manu (V. 155 = Viṣṇu Dh. S. 25. 15) ordains 'there is no separate yajña for

1294. तस्या यावदुक्तमाशिक्षिन्मन्त्रचर्यमनुल्लयत्वात् । जै. VI. 1. 24.

1295. रामोपि कृत्वा सौवर्णीं सीतां पत्नीं यशस्विनीम् । ईजे यज्ञैर्वहुविधैः सह भ्रातृ-
भिरचितैः ॥ गोभिलस्मृति III. 10 ; 'काञ्चनीं सम पत्नीं च' in रामायण VII. 91. 25.

1296. पत्युर्नो यज्ञसंयोगे । पा. IV. 1. 33 ; 'एवमपि तुषजकस्य पत्नीति न
सिध्यति । उपमानात्सिद्धम् । पत्नीवत्यत्नीति ।' महाभाष्य on पा. IV. 1. 33. (vol. II.
p. 214).

1297. अर्धो वा एतस्य यज्ञस्य सीयते यस्य व्रत्येऽहन् पत्युनालम्बुका भवति । तै. ब्रा.
III. 7. 1.

women (independently of the husband) nor vrata (vows) nor fasts (without his consent).’ Similarly Kātyāyana propounds¹²⁹⁸ a sweeping rule ‘whatever a woman does to secure spiritual benefit after death without the consent of her father (when she is unmarried), or her husband or her son, becomes fruitless for the purpose intended.’ Vide also Veda-Vyāsa smṛti II. 19. The Nityācārapaddhati (p. 329) quotes Manu V. 155 and remarks that Manu’s words are not to be taken literally but are only meant to extol the eminence of the husband.

Very detailed rules were laid down as to precedence among wives, if a man married several women. Viṣṇu Dh. S. (26.1-4) concisely gives all the rules.¹²⁹⁹ If all the wives are of the same caste, then the wife whose marriage took place first was to be associated with the husband in all religious acts; if a man had wives of different varṇas (when inter-caste marriages were allowed) the wife of the same varṇa with the husband had precedence, though her marriage might have been later in date. If there is no wife of the same varṇa as himself, the husband may associate with himself in religious rites even a wife of the varṇa immediately next to his own; but a *dvijātī* should never associate a śūdra wife with himself in religious ceremonies. Vide Madanapārijāta p. 134 for similar rules. Vas. Dh. S. 18. 18 expressly says ‘a woman belonging to the dark varṇa (i. e. śūdra) is meant only for pleasure and not for performance of religious rites’.¹³⁰⁰ Gobhila smṛti (I. 103-104) contains rules similar to those in Viṣṇu Dh. S., Yāj. I. 88 and Veda-Vyāsa II. 12 are to the same effect. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. remarks that though the eldest wife alone is entitled to take part in religious rites, all wives (except a śūdra wife) may be cremated with the śrauta fire. Vide Sm. C. I. p. 165. In the Pūrvamīmāṃsā (IX. 3. 20-21) Jaimini discusses the question whether the direction in the Darśa-pūrṇamāsa ‘patnīm samāhaya’ (having girt up the wife) which employs the singular number

1298. नारी खल्वननुज्ञाता पित्रा भर्त्रा सुतेन वा । विफलं तद्भवेत्तस्या यत्करोत्यौर्ध्व-
देहिकम् ॥ कात्यायन quoted in the व्यवहारमयुक्त p. 113. This is ascribed to
मार्कण्डेय by परा. मा. II. 1. p. 37. and by हेमाद्रि (व्रतखण्ड part 1. p. 362) to
आदिपुराण.

1299. सुवर्णासु बहुभार्यासु विद्यमानासु ज्येष्ठया सह धर्मकार्यं कुर्यात् । मिश्रासु च
कनिष्ठयापि समानवर्णया । समानवर्णया अभावे त्वनन्तरयैवापादि च । न त्वेव द्विजः
शूद्रया ॥ विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 26. 1-4.

1300. कुण्ववर्णा या रामा रमणायेव न धर्माय । वसिष्ठ 18. 18.

should be modified into the dual or plural when the sacrificer (in a model sacrifice or its modifications) has two or more wives and establishes that no change is required. The Trikaṇḍamaṇḍana¹³⁰¹ (I. 43-44) says that there were three views when a man had several wives viz. some said that all should be associated with him in religious rites, others held that only the eldest wife of the same varṇa should be associated and the third view was that the husband should never associate with himself a wife whom he married for pleasure after he kindled the sacred fires. Manu (IX. 86-87) lays down that the wife of the same caste with the husband should always have precedence not only in the obligatory religious rites, but also in ministering to the physical comfort of the husband and if a brāhmaṇa husband gets these done by a wife of another caste when the wife of the same caste is near, he becomes like a cāṇḍāla.

From very ancient times one of the articles of faith was that a man was born with debts, that he owed three debts to sages, gods and pītṛs and that by brahmacarya (student-hood), by performing yajñas and by procreating sons he freed himself from those three debts respectively. Vide¹³⁰² Tai. S. VI. 3. 10. 5, Śat. Br. I. 7.2.11, Ait. Br. 33.1. The last very succinctly states the purposes served by a son viz. payment of the debt to ancestors, the securing of immortality and heaven. Rg. V. 4. 10 (prajābhiraṅgne amṛtatvam-aśyām) prays 'may I obtain immortality through progeny.' Vas. Dh. S. 17. 1-4 quotes these passages of the Tai. S., Ait. Br. and Rg. The Rg. X. 85. 45 invokes the blessing of ten sons on the newly married bride and the Rg. is full of the yearning for a son at every step. Vide Rg. I. 91. 20, I. 92. 13, III. 1. 23 &c. Jaimini (VI. 2. 31)¹³⁰³ discusses the passage of the Tai. S. and arrives at the conclusion that the duties laid down in it are obligatory and not left to choice and Śabara adds another explanation that these duties are obligatory on all dvijātis and the word 'brāhmaṇa' is used in the

1301. भार्याः सन्तीह यावत्त्यस्ताभिः सर्वाभिरन्वितः । यद्वा सवर्णया ज्येष्ठभार्यायैव समन्वितः ॥ यद्वाथानादुपयुक्तकामपत्नीनिवर्जितः । त्रिकाण्डमण्डन I. 43-44.

1302. जायमानो वै ब्राह्मणस्त्रिभिर्ऋणवा जायते ब्रह्मचर्येण ऋषिभ्यो यज्ञेन देवेभ्यः प्रजया पितृभ्य एष वा अन्तुणो यः पुत्री यज्वा ब्रह्मचारिवासी । ते. सं. VI. 3. 10. 5; ऋणं ह वै जायते योऽस्ति । स जायमान एव देवेभ्य ऋषिभ्यः पितृभ्यो मनुष्येभ्यः । इतपथ I. 7. 2. 11; ऋणमस्मिन्संनयत्यममुत्वं च गच्छति । पिता पुत्रस्य जातस्य पश्येच्चैजीवतो सुखम् । नापुत्रस्य लोकोऽस्तीति तत्सर्वं पशवो विदुः । ऐ. ब्रा. 33. 1. वसिष्ठधर्मसूत्र XI. 47 quotes the first passage.

1303. ब्राह्मणस्य तु सोमविद्याप्रजसृणवाक्येन संयोगात् । जैमिनि VI. 2. 31.

Tai. S. as illustrative only. Manu (VI. 35) enjoins upon a man that he should not think of *mokṣa* (release from *samsāra*) before he has paid off the three debts and (IX. 106) further says that by the very birth of the eldest son a man becomes free from the debt owed to ancestors. Manu (IX. 137), Vas. 17. 5, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 15. 46 contain the same verse proclaiming that a man attains all (heavenly) worlds by means of a son and Manu IX. 138, Ādi. 129. 14, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 15. 44 declare that a putra is so called because he saves his father from the hell called *put*. The Nirukta II. 11¹³⁰⁴ also derives the word *putra* similarly. Further the water and *piṇḍas* (balls of cooked rice) offered by the son to his father and other deceased ancestors were supposed to be of great efficacy for the peace of the souls of the departed. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. 85. 70,¹³⁰⁵ Vanaparva 84. 97, Matsyapurāṇa 207. 39 contain a verse 'one should desire to have many sons in the hope that one of them may repair to Gayā.' On account of these several benefits conferred by a son, the highest importance was attached to the birth of a son. The wife helped a man to discharge two of his debts, to the gods by associating with him in sacrifices and to the pitrs by procreating a son or sons. Therefore the goal of the life of women was declared to be to get married and procreate sons. This was so much the case from very ancient times that even the Śat. Br. (V. 3. 2. 2, S. B. E. vol. 41, p. 65) says that the sonless wife is possessed with *Nir-ṛti* (ill luck or Destruction). Manu (IX. 96) says 'women are created for procreation and men have to propagate (the race); therefore in the Veda it is declared that the wife shares in common (with the husband) the performance of religious duties'. Nārada (śrīpūrṇa v. 19) also declares that women are created for (procreating) children. It was on account of these ideas about the goal of woman's life and the supreme importance of a son that the *smṛtis* and *dharma-sūtra* works recommended or allowed the husband to marry a second time even when the first wife was living.

All the *smṛtis*, *purāṇas* and the digests devote a great deal of space to the duties of a wife. It would be impossible to set them out in detail. A few striking passages alone will be cited. All are agreed that the foremost duty of a wife is to obey her

1304. पुत्रः पुरुत्राच्यते निपरणाद्वा पुत्ररक्तं तत्तच्छायत इति वा । निरुक्त II. 11.

1305. एष्टव्या बहवः पुत्रा यद्येकोपि गयां व्रजेत् । यजेत वाश्वमेधेन नीलं वा वृषह-
त्सृजेत् ॥ विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 85. 70. The मत्स्यपुराण 207. 39 reads गौरिं चाप्युद्धरे-
त्कन्यां for यजे मेधेन.

husband and to honour him as her god. In the Śat. Br.¹³⁰⁶ princess Sukanyā when married to the old and decrepit sage Cyavana to mollify the sage who had been wronged by her brothers says 'I shall not forsake my husband, while he is alive, to whom my father gave me' (IV. 1. 5. 9). Śaṅkha-Likhita¹³⁰⁷ say 'a wife should not hate her husband even if he be impotent (or have swollen testicles), *patita* (guilty of mahāpātaka and so an outcast), devoid of a limb or diseased, since the husband is the god of women.' Manu declares (V. 154) 'a virtuous wife should serve her husband as if he were a god, whether he be of evil character, or lustful (loving another woman) or devoid of good qualities' Yāj. I. 77 enjoins upon women 'this is the highest duty (dharma) of women that they should obey their husband's words; if he is guilty of some mortal sin, they should wait till he is purified (and thereafter be dependent on his words)'. The Rāmāyaṇa (Ayodhyā-kāṇḍa 24. 26-27) remarks 'the husband is the god and the master of the wife, while she is alive and she obtains the highest heaven by serving her husband.' The Mahābhārata very frequently harps upon the duties of wives.¹³⁰⁸ The Anuśāsana parva 146. 55 says 'the husband is the god of a woman, her (sole) relative, her goal'; the Āsvamedhika-parva 90. 51 declares 'the husband is the highest deity.' 'The father gives only what is limited, the brother and the son do the same; what woman would not worship the husband who gives what is unlimited or immeasurable!' (Śāntiparva 148. 6-7). The Matsyapurāṇa 210. 18 contains this last verse and adds 'the husband is the god for women and is their highest goal.' This idea of the wife's entire submission to the

1306. यस्मै मां पितादाज्ञैवाहं तं जीवन्तं हास्यामि । इतपथ IV. 1. 5. 9. Vide Manu V. 151 for a paraphrase of this passage. विश्वरूप on या I. 69 makes an objector rely on this Śatapatha passage to show that it allows niyoga after the husband's death.

1307. न भर्तारं द्विग्याद्यद्यप्यधीवलः स्यात्पतितोऽङ्गहीनो ग्याधितो वा पतिर्हि देवता स्त्रीणाम् । शङ्खालिखित quoted in स्मृतिच० (व्यव. p. 251), परा. मा. II. part 1 p. 38.

1308. पतिर्हि देवो नारीणां पतिर्वन्द्यः पतिर्गतिः । अनुशासन 146. 55; मितं वदति हि पिता मितं भ्राता मितं सुतः । अमितस्य हि दातारं भर्तारं का न पूजयेत् ॥ शान्तिपर्व 148. 6; पतिर्हि देवतं स्त्रीणां पतिरेव परायणम् । मितं वदति पूजयेत् ॥ मत्स्य 210. 17-18. भार्यैकचारिणी गृहविश्रम्भा देववत्पतिमाहङ्गुल्येन वर्तते । कामसूत्र IV. 1. 1. Compare St. Paul's letter to the Ephesians V. 22-24 'wives, submit yourselves unto your own husbands, as unto the Lord... Therefore as the church is subject unto Christ, so let the wives be to their own husbands in everything.'

husband is voiced even by poets like Kālidāsa,¹³⁰⁹ who makes one of the pupils of Kaṇva say about Śākuntalā 'this is your wife, abandon her or accept her, since all-round domination of the husband over the wife is proper.' Manu V. 150-156, Yāj. I. 83-87, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 25. 2 ff, Vansparva 233. 19-58 (Draupadī as the speaker), Anuśāsana 123 (Śāṇḍilī declares the conduct of virtuous wives), Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti II. 20-32 (wife's duties from morning till night), Vṛddha-Hārīta XI. 84 ff (wife's duties from morning), Sm. C. (vyavahāra section) p. 249 ff, Madanapārijāta pp. 192-195 and other *nibandhas* dwell at length upon the duties of the wife. A few of such duties may be indicated here.

According to Manu V. 150 'a wife should always present a smiling face, should be alert and clever in her domestic duties, should keep domestic vessels well burnished and clean and should not be extravagant in spending.' Manu IX. 11 asks the husband to set to his wife the task of conserving the wealth acquired and looking to its expenditure, of keeping things clean, of the performance of religious acts, of cooking food and of taking care of household paraphernalia. Manu (IX. 13) adds that drinking wine, company of bad people, staying away from the husband, wandering about (to *tīrthas* or elsewhere), sleep (by day), staying in the house of strangers—these six spoil married women. Ādiparva 74. 12 gives¹³¹⁰ expression to the popular notion that people do not like married women staying with their paternal relatives for a long time away from their husbands, since such a stay leads to loss of good name and character. The same sentiment is echoed by Kālidāsa in the Śākuntalā (V. 17). The Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa 77. 19 is to the same effect. Yāj. (I. 83 and 87) requires the wife to keep household utensils and furniture in their proper places, to be clever, to have a smiling face, to be unextravagant, to be devoted to doing what is agreeable and beneficial to the husband, to show respect to her father-in-law and mother-in-law by clasping their feet; to

1309. तदेवा भवतः कान्ता त्यज वैनां गृहाण वा । उपपन्ना हि दारेषु प्रसुता सर्वतोमुखी ॥ शाकुन्तल V.

1310. नारीणां चिरवासो हि बान्धवेषु न रोचते । कीर्तिचारित्र्यधर्मज्ञस्तस्माच्चयत मा चिरम् ॥ आदिपर्व 74. 12; compare 'सतीमपि ज्ञातिकुलैकसंश्रयां जनोन्यथा भर्तृमतीं विशङ्कते । शाकुन्तल V. 17.

conduct herself decently, to restrain her senses.' Śaṅkha¹³¹¹ lays down what is decent conduct for a wife 'she should not go out of the house unless she is asked (by her husband or elders) nor without putting on an upper garment; she should not walk fast; she should not speak with a male who is unrelated to her, except a trader, a saṁnyāsin, an old man or a physician; she should not allow her navel to be seen; she should wear her garment (or *sari*) in such a way that it may reach down to her ankles; she should not expose her breasts, she should not laugh loudly without covering her mouth (with her hand or her garment); she should not hate her husband or his relatives; she should not be in the company of dancing girls, gambling women, women who make assignments to meet lovers, female ascetics, female fortune-tellers, women who live by tricks, magical and secret rites and who are of bad character; since (the wise declare that) the character of women of good family is spoilt by the company (they keep).' The Viṣṇu Dh. S. 25. 1-6 ordains 'now then the duties of wives (are declared); they should perform the same *vratas* (observances and vows) which the husband undertakes; they should honour the mother-in-law, the father-in-law, other elders, gods, guests and keep the household utensils well arranged; they should not be extravagant in giving to others; should keep the goods well guarded; they should have no liking for magical practices (to win love) and should be devoted to auspicious conduct.' Vide also Viṣṇu Dh. S. chap. 99 last two verses (quoted by Aparārka p. 107). Draupadī (Vanaparva chap. 233) states 'whatever my husband does not eat, drink or partake of, I avoid. I know the total wealth, the income and expenditure of the Pāṇḍavas'. The Kāmasūtra directs the wife to make expenditure that will be commensurate with the yearly income of the

1311. नाहुक्ता गृहान्निर्गच्छेत् । नाहुत्तरीया । न त्वरितं ब्रजेत् । न परपुरुषमभि-
भाषेतान्यत्र वणिक्प्रव्रजितवृद्धवैद्येभ्यः । न नार्भं दर्शयेत् । आ शुल्काहासः परिदध्यात् । न
स्तनौ विद्वतौ कुर्यात् । न हसेदुपपावता । भर्तुः तद्वन्धुत्वा न द्विष्यात् । न गणिका-धूर्ताभि-
सारिणी-प्रव्रजिता-प्रेक्षणिकामायामूलकुहककारिकादुःशीलादिभिः सहैकत्र तिष्ठेत् । संसर्गेण हि
कुलस्त्रीणां चारित्र्यं दुष्यति । शङ्ख quoted by the मितक्षरा on या. I. 87, by अपरार्क
p. 107 (on या. I. 83), सद्नपारिजात p. 195; vide also स्मृतिच० (व्यवहार)
pp. 249-250 and वि. र. p. 430. As to speaking with परपुरुष, vide
वनपर्व 266. 3 एका ह्यहं संप्रति ते न वाचं ददामि वै भद्रं निबोध चेदम् । अहं त्वरण्ये कथमे-
कमेका त्वामालपेयं निरता स्वधर्मे ॥. Vide also अश्वशासन 146. 43. 'मूलकारिका'
in the passage of शङ्ख means one who employs herbs &c. for वशीकरण.
Vide वनपर्व 233. 7-14 (the last verse is मूलपचारैर्हि विषं प्रयच्छन्ति जिघांसवः).

husband.¹³¹² Manu (VIII. 361) prescribes the fine of a *suvarṇa* for a man speaking with a woman with whom he is forbidden to speak and Yāj. II. 285 prescribes a fine of one hundred *paṇas* in the case of a woman who is forbidden to speak with a man (by her husband or father &c.) and a fine of two hundred *paṇas* in the case of the man who speaks with a woman with whom he is forbidden to speak. Bṛhaspati¹³¹³ says that a wife should get up from bed before her husband and elders, should partake of food and condiments after they have eaten, should occupy a seat lower than that of the husband or elders. 'A wife can engage in vratas, fasts, observances and worship (of god &c.) with the permission of her husband' say Śāṅkha-Likhita.¹³¹⁴ The Purāṇas frequently descant on *strīdharmā*. A few specimens may be noted here. The Bhāgavata VII. 11. 29 says that the wife who looks upon her husband as the god Hari dwells in the world of Hari and revels with her husband. The Skanda Purāṇa (Brahma-khaṇḍa, Dharmāranya section, chap. 7) has a long description of a *pativrātā* 'she should not repeat the name of her husband, as such conduct leads to the increase of the husband's life and should never take the name of another male (v. 18), even when she is loudly blamed (by the husband) she does not cry loudly, even when beaten she is smiling (v. 19). A *pativrātā* should always use turmeric, *kuṅkuma*, *sindūra*, lamp black (for the eye), a bodice, *tāmbūla*, auspicious ornaments, and should braid her hair' (vv. 28-29). The Padma-purāṇa (Śrīṣṭi-khaṇḍa, chap. 47, v. 55) says that that wife is *pativrātā* who in doing work is like a slave, like a *hetaira* in affording sexual pleasure, like a mother in offering food and like a counsellor in adversity.

Special rules of conduct were laid down for a wife whose husband was away from home on a journey. Śāṅkha-Likhita (quoted by Aparārka p. 108, Sm. C., vyavahāra p. 253) contain a long statement about what such a wife should not do 'women whose husbands are away from home should avoid amusements of swing and dance, seeing pictures, applying unguents to the body, walking in parks, sleeping in open places (or uncovered).

1312. सांवत्सरिकमायं संख्याय तद्वदुत्तरं व्ययं कुर्यात् । कामसूत्र IV. 1. 32.

1313. पूर्वोक्तान् शुश्रूषवाङ् भोजनव्यञ्जनक्रिया । जवन्यासनशायित्वं कर्म स्त्रीणा-
मुदाहृतम् । बृहस्पति quoted in स्मृतिच०, व्यव. p. 257.

1314. भर्तृरनुज्ञया व्रतोपवासनियमेज्यादीनामारम्भः स्त्रीधर्मः । शङ्खलिलित quoted
in स्मृतिच० (व्यवहार) p. 252.

partaking of sumptuous food and drink, playing with a ball, fragrant resins and perfumes, flowers, ornaments, ceremonial brushing of the teeth, collyrium (in the eyes).’ Yāj. (I. 84) puts these briefly ‘a woman whose husband is gone to another country should give up play, the adornment of the body, visiting samājas (note 986 above) and festivals, laughing, going to the house of a stranger.’ The Anuśāsana-parva¹³¹⁵ (123. 17) indicates that a wife whose husband is gone abroad does not apply eyesalve or *rocana* (yellow pigment) to her body, does not take a ceremonial bath and does not use flowers, unguents or ornaments. Manu (IX. 74-75) requires the husband when going abroad to make provision for the wife’s maintenance, since a woman without some means of livelihood, though originally virtuous, may go astray and adds ‘when the husband goes abroad after providing for maintenance, the wife should live thereby and abide by the restrictions (laid down for such wives); if he goes away without making provision for her maintenance she should maintain herself by crafts (such as spinning) which are unblamable.’ The Viṣṇu Dh. S. (25. 9-10) contains similar rules. The Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti (II. 52) enjoins upon a wife whose husband is gone abroad ‘her¹³¹⁶ face should look pale and distressed, she should not embellish her body, she should be devoted to her husband, should be without (full) meal, and should emaciate her body.’ The Trikaṇḍamaṇḍana¹³¹⁷ (I. 80-81 and 85) says that when the husband is gone abroad the wife may with the help of a priest perform the daily duties of *agnihotra*, the obligatory *iṣṭis* and *pitṛyajña*, but should not perform soma sacrifices.

The rewards of the wife’s single-minded devotion to her husband and her rigid observance of the rules of conduct prescribed for her are stated at great length in smṛti works. Manu (IX. 29-30 = Manu V. 165 and 164) says ‘that woman who does not prove faithless to her husband in thought, word and deed (lit. body) secures the (heavenly) worlds together with her husband and is spoken of as a *sādhvī*’ (a virtuous woman, a *pativrata*); but by proving faithless to her husband a

1315. अञ्जनं रोचनां चैव स्नानं माल्याङ्गुलेपनम् । प्रसाधनं च निष्क्रान्ते नाभिनन्दामि भर्तरि ॥ अङ्गुशासन 123. 17.

1316. विवर्णदीनवदना देहसंस्कारवर्जिता । पतिव्रता निराहारा शोण्यते प्रोषिते पतौ ॥ वेदव्यासस्मृति II. 52.

1317. अतोऽग्निहोत्रं नित्येष्टिः पितृयज्ञ इति त्रयम् । कर्तव्यं प्रोषिते पत्यौ नान्यत्स्वामि-क्रियान्वितम् ॥ त्रिकाण्डमण्डन I. 83.

woman incurs censure in this world, is born as a female jackal (in the next life) and is afflicted with very bad diseases.' Yāj. (I. 75 and 87) declares that the woman, who does not approach another while the husband is living or after his death and who is intent on doing what is agreeable and beneficial to her husband, who is of good conduct and has restrained her senses, attains glory in this world and plays with Umā (the wife of Śiva) in heaven. Brhaspati¹³¹⁸ defines a *pativratā* as one who is distressed when her husband is distressed, who is delighted when her husband is in delight, who is emaciated and wears dirty clothes when her husband has gone on a journey and who dies on the death of her husband.

In the Mahābhārata and the purāṇas hyperbolical descriptions of the power of the *pativratā* occur at every step. *Vide* Vana-parva 63 where we are told (vv. 38-39) that when Damayanti cursed by her faithfulness to her husband the young hunter who had evil designs on her, he fell down a dead man. In the Anuśāsanaparva 123 Śaṇḍilī who¹³¹⁹ had attained heavenly worlds tells Śumanā Kaikeyī how she reached that state without wearing kāsāyas (dyed garments worn by samnyāsins) or bark garments and without having matted hair or without tonsuring her head (as ascetics do), but by strictly following the rules laid down for virtuous wives, such as not addressing harsh words to their husband, abandoning all food that the husband did not like. Anuśāsana (146. 4-6) names several *pativratās* of ancient times and the following verses dilate upon the rules of conduct for virtuous wives. The story of Sāvitrī in the Vanaparva (293-299) illustrates the power of a *pativratā*, who wrung back even from Yama, the dread god of Death, the life of her husband.¹³²⁰ Sāvitrī and Sitā have been held by the women of India for thousands of years as the

1318. आर्तर्तिं सुदिते हृष्टा मोषिते मलिना कुशा ॥ मृते म्रियेत या पत्यौ सा स्त्री ज्ञेया पतिव्रता ॥ बृहस्पति. quoted by अपरार्क p. 109, by the मिता. on या. I. 86 (as हारीत's). It is बृहदारण्यक XI. 199.

1319. नाहं काषायवसना नापि वल्कलधारिणी । न च मुण्डा च जटिला भूत्वा देवत्वमागता ॥ अहितानि च वाक्यानि सर्वाणि पुरुषाणि च । अममत्ता च भर्तारं कदाचिन्नाहमब्रवम् ॥ अनुशासन 123. 8-9, 14 &c.

1320. *Vide* also मत्स्यपुराण 208-214 for the tale of सावित्री. सावित्री says in वनपर्व 297. 53 'न कामये भर्तृविनाकुता सुखं न कामये भर्तृविनाकुता दिवम् । न कामये भर्तृविनाकुता श्रियं न भर्तृहीना वयवसानि जीवितुम् ॥'

highest ideals of womanly virtue, to which they have always endeavoured to approach and one may say that Indian women generally have most successfully lived up to that high and ennobling ideal that was set before them. Vanaparva (205-206) tells the story of a learned brāhmaṇa, who by his mere angry look made a female crane die when the latter voided its faeces on to the head of the brāhmaṇa and who was rebuked by a pativrātā that the latter was not a crane, when the brāhmaṇa tried to frighten the virtuous woman for her tardiness in welcoming him as a guest and for looking only after her husband. The Śalyaparva (63) narrates how awful the power of a pativrātā like Gāndhārī is in that she can, if she choose, burn the world, she can stop even the motions of the sun and¹³²¹ the moon. The Skanda-purāṇa III (Brahma-khaṇḍa, Brāhmāraṇya section chap. 7) first names (verses 14-15) several pativrātās like Arundhati, Anasūyā, Sāvitrī, Śāṇḍilyā, Satyā, Menā and then waxes eloquent over the tremendous spiritual power of a pativrātā 'just as a snake-charmer¹³²² forcibly draws out from a hole a snake, so a pativrātā snatches away her husband's life from the messengers of Death and reaches heaven with her husband and the messengers of Death, on seeing the pativrātā, beat a hasty retreat.'

As the foremost duty of the wife was to honour and serve the husband, she must always stay with him and she had a right of residence in the house. A wife was further entitled to be maintained in the house by the husband. A verse quoted by Medhātithi on Manu III. 62 and IV. 251 and by the Mit. on Yāj. I. 224 and II. 175 and which occurs in some MSS. as a spurious verse after Manu XI. 10 says 'Manu declares that one must maintain one's aged parents, a virtuous wife and a minor son by doing even a hundred bad acts'.¹³²³ Dakṣa

1321. कृष्ण says to गान्धारी 'शक्ता चासि महाभागे पृथिवीं सचराचरात् । चक्षुषा क्रोधदीप्तेन प्रदग्धुं तपसो बलात् ॥' शल्यपर्व 63. 21.

1322. व्यालग्राही यथा व्यालं बलाद्बुद्धरते बिलात् । एवमुत्क्रम्य हूतेभ्यः पतिं स्वर्गं व्रजेत्सती ॥ यमदूताः पलायन्ते तामालोक्य पतिव्रताम् । स्कन्दपुराण (ब्रह्मखण्ड), धर्मारण्य chap. 7. 54-55. It will be noticed later on that the half verse व्यालग्राही occurs in numerous works.

1323. इद्धौ च मातापितरौ साध्वी भार्या शिशुः सुतः । अप्यकार्यशतं कृत्वा भर्तव्या मयुरवधीत् ॥

II. 36 (= Laghu-Āśvalāyana ¹³²⁴ I. 74) defines *poṣyavarga* (persons whom every one, however poor, is bound to maintain) as follows : ' the parents, the *guru*, the wife, children and a helpless man who has taken shelter with one, a guest and fire constitute *poṣyavarga*. ' Manu VIII. 389 prescribes that the man who abandons and does not maintain his parents, wife, and son, when they are not outcasted, should be fined 600 paṇas by the king. Yāj. I. 74 requires the husband to maintain a wife whom he has superseded in the same way as before, otherwise he would be guilty of great sin. Yāj. I. 76 says that if a man abandoned a wife who was obedient, diligent, the mother of a son, and agreeable in speech, he was to be made to give one-third of his property to the wife, but if he had no property he had to maintain her. Nārada (*stripuṃsa* 95) has a similar provision. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. V. 163 made the husband punishable like a thief, if he abandoned his wife. The husband was required by Yāj. I. 81 to be devoted to his wife, since women are to be guarded (against falling into error). Vide Yāj. I. 78 also. Manu IV. 133 forbids adultery with another's wife and Manu IV. 134 (= Anuśāsana 104. 21 and Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa 34. 62-63) observes that there is nothing that harms one's life as much as adultery. Viśvarūpa ¹³²⁵ on Yāj. I. 80 points out that the guarding of a wife from evil can be secured only by being devoted to her and not by beating her, as, if the husband were to beat her, it might endanger her life. Manu (IX. 5-9) also calls upon men to guard women, and (in IX. 10-12) says that they cannot be guarded by imprisonment or force, but by engaging them in looking to the income and expenditure, the furniture, beauty and purity of the house and the cooking and by inculcating on them the value of a virtuous life. In spite of this the husband possessed certain powers of physical correction over the wife which were the same as those possessed by a teacher over a pupil or a father over a son, viz. he could administer beating with a rope or a thin piece of bamboo on the back but never on the head. Vide Manu VIII. 299-300 (cited above on p. 363) which are the same as Matsyapurāṇa 227. 152-154. It will be seen that about two thousand years ago Manu did not confer

1324. माता पिता गुरुर्भार्या प्रजा दीनः समाश्रितः । अभ्यागतोऽतिथिश्चाग्निः पोष्यवर्ग उदाहृतः ॥ दक्ष II. 36. Verse 37 includes other persons among *poṣyavarga* in the case of the well-to-do. Aparārka p. 939 quotes Dakṣa II. 36-37.

1325. रक्षा च स्त्रीणां स्वदारनिरतत्वमेव न तु तादृशनादिका । तथा तासामनर्थोपि संभाव्येत । तथा च लौकिकाः पाञ्चालस्त्रीषु मार्दवमिति पठन्ति । विश्वरूप on या. I. 80.

greater powers of correction and restraint of the wife on the husband than the Common Law of England allowed to husbands even in the 18th century.¹³²⁶

As it was the husband's duty to provide residence and maintenance for the wife and as the wife was bound to stay with the husband, it follows that either party could after marriage enforce his or her rights in a court of law if the other party refused to perform her or his duties. In modern times a suit for restitution of conjugal rights can be brought and the decree can be executed against the wife by the attachment and sale of her property (if she has any), but not by detention in civil jail and against the husband by the court ordering the husband to make periodical payments of money for the maintenance of the wife and securing such payments by creating a charge on his property (vide Civil Procedure Code of 1908 Order 21 rules 32 and 33). To such a suit by the husband Indian Courts have recognised certain valid defences, such as desertion, cruelty or such conduct as endangers the health of the wife, change of religion, or keeping a concubine in the house or the husband's being afflicted with a loathsome disease (like leprosy). Vide *Bai Premkunvar v. Bhika* 5 Bom. H. C. R. (A. C. J.) p. 209 (leprosy), *Yamunabai v. Narayan* 1 Bom. 164 (cruelty), *Paigi v. Sheo Narain* 8 All. 78, *Dular Koer v. Dwarakanath* 34 Cal. 971, *Bai Jivi v. Narsingh* 51 Bom. 329. Where the courts make the husband pay maintenance, they are in principle following Yāj. I. 76 and Nārada (p. 569). Vide *Binda v. Kaunsilia* 13 All. 126 where many original Sanskrit texts are cited.

Not only was the husband bound to maintain the wife, but he was called upon to cohabit with the wife and was supposed to incur the sin of embryo-murder if he refused without good cause to do so. On the other hand the husband had a right of

1326. Vide Blackstone's commentaries on the laws of England (ed. of 1765, Oxford) Book I. chap. 15 pp. 432-433 'The husband also (by the old law) might give his wife moderate correction.....the law thought it reasonable to entrust him with this power of restraining her by domestic chastisement in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children.....Yet the lower rank of people still claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty in case of any gross behaviour'. Vide also Lush on the law of 'Husband and Wife' (4th ed. 1933) pp. 24-29 about the husband's power to beat his wife and restrain her in the past and now.

consortium i. e. the wife was not to refuse herself to the husband and if she did so her delinquency was to be proclaimed in the village and she was to be driven from the house ¹³²⁷.

The humane character of the legislation of the Indian sages is seen by the fact that even for adultery they do not allow the husband to drive the wife out of the house and to abandon her. Gaut. 22. 35 prescribes that a wife who violates her duty of chastity must undergo a penance, but she should be kept under guard and be given food. Yāj. (I. 70, 72) declares 'an adulterous woman should be deprived of her authority (over servants &c.), should be made to wear dirty clothes, should be given food just sufficient to enable her to live, should be treated with scorn and made to lie on the ground (not on a cot); a woman becomes pure from adultery when she has her monthly period after that, but if she conceives in adulterous intercourse she may be abandoned and also when she is guilty of the murder of her foetus or of her husband or of some sin that makes her an outcast'. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 72 draws attention to the text of Vasiṣṭha XXI. 12 'the wives of brāhmanas, ¹³²⁸ kṣatriyas and vaiśyas who commit adultery with a śūdra may be purified by a penance in case no child is born (of the intercourse), but not otherwise' and remarks that the words of Yājñavalkya are to be understood in the same sense i. e. a wife is to be abandoned only if she be in adultery with a śūdra; and further that the abandonment consists in not allowing her to participate in religious rites and conjugal matters, but she is not to be cast on the streets; she is to be kept apart guarded in a room and to be given food and raiment (as stated in Yāj. III. 297). Vasiṣṭha XXI. 10 says that only four (types of) wives are to be abandoned viz. one who has intercourse with the husband's pupil and with the husband's guru, and especially one who attempts to kill her husband and who commits

1327. त्रीणि वर्षाण्युदमतीं यो भार्या नाधिगच्छति । स तुल्यं भूणहत्याया दोषमुच्छत्य-
संशयम् ॥ ऋतुस्नातां तु यो भार्या संनिधौ नोपगच्छति । पितरस्तस्य तन्मासं तस्मिन्मजसि
शेरते ॥ भर्तुः प्रतिनिवेशेन वा भार्या स्कन्दयेद्दुग्धम् । तां ग्राममध्ये विख्याप्य भूणध्वनीं
निधमेद्दुग्धात् ॥ बौ. घ. सू. IV. 1. 19-20, 22. विस्वरूप on या. I. 79 quotes as
Baudhāyana's verses 20 and 22. संवर्त 98 is the same as बौ. घ. सू. IV. 1. 20.
पराशर (4. 14-15) is similar to Baud. Dh. S. IV. 1. 20 and 22.

1328. ब्राह्मणक्षत्रियविशां भार्याः शूद्रेण संगताः । अमजाता विद्युभ्यन्ति प्रायश्चित्तेन
नेतराः ॥ चतस्रस्तु पतित्याज्याः शिष्यया शुरुणा च वा । पतिघ्नी च विशेषेण जुद्धितोपगता च
वा ॥ वसिष्ठ 21. 12 and 10. The मिता० ascribes the second verse to व्यास on
Yāj. I. 72 and to वसिष्ठ on या. III. 298.

adultery with a man of degraded caste (like a leather-worker). Nārada¹³²⁹ (stripuṃsa v. 91) says 'when a woman commits adultery her hair shall be shaven, she shall have to lie on a low bed, shall receive bad food and clothing and her occupation will be the removal of sweepings of the husband's house'. Gaut. 23. 14, Śānti-parva 165. 64 and Manu VIII. 371 are more harsh on a woman who has intercourse with a low-caste man, i. e. she is to be punished by the king with being devoured by dogs. Veda-Vyāsa (II. 49-50) says that 'a wife¹³³⁰ who is guilty of adultery should be kept in the house but void of her rights of associating in religious and conjugal matters and of her rights over property, and should be treated with scorn; but when she has had monthly course after the act of adultery (and does not repeat it), the husband should allow her the usual rights of a wife as before.' Manu XI. 177 asks the husband to confine an exceedingly corrupt wife to one room and compel her to perform the penance¹³³¹ prescribed for males in cases of adultery. Vide Atri V. 1-5, Parāśara IV. 20 and XI. 87 and Brhad-Yama IV. 36.

Under the English law, if the wife commits adultery the husband's obligation to maintain her ceases altogether unless he had connived at it or condoned it.¹³³²

The following propositions can be deduced from the texts cited above. (1) There is no absolute right of abandonment of wife in the husband on the ground of adultery; (2) Adultery is ordinarily an upapātaka (a minor sin) and can be atoned for by appropriate penance undergone by the wife; (3) the wife who has committed adultery but has undergone penance is to be restored to all the ordinary rights of wives (*vide* Vas. XXI. 12, Yāj. I. 72, Mit. thereon and Aparārka p. 98); (4) as long as the adulteress has not undergone penance, she is to be given in the house itself starving maintenance and to be deprived of all her rights as wife (Yāj. I. 70, Śāntiparva 165. 63);

1329. व्यभिचारे स्त्रिया मौण्ड्यमथः शयनमेव च । कदञ्च वा कुवासश्च कर्म चावस्क-
रोज्झनम् ॥ नारद (स्त्रीपुंसा v. 91).

1330. व्यभिचारेण दुष्टां तां पत्नीमा दर्शनादृतोः । हतत्रिवर्गकरणां धिक्कृतां च
वसेत्पतिः ॥ पुनस्तास्मात्तवस्नातां पूर्ववद् व्यवहारयेत् ॥ वेदव्यास II. 49-50.

1331. Penance will be lighter or heavier according to the caste of the adulterer. According to मनु XI. 60 adultery is an उपपातक and the ordinary penance for it is गोव्रत or चान्द्रायण (मनु XI. 118).

1332. *Vide* Halsbury's Laws of England vol. 16 (Hailsham ed.) pp. 609-610.

(5) a wife, who commits adultery with a śūdra or has had a child thereby, who is guilty of killing her foetus or of attempt to kill the husband or guilty of one of the deadly sins (mahā-pātakas), is to be deprived of her right to participation in religious rites or conjugal matters and is to be kept confined in a room or in a hut near the house and to be given starving maintenance and poor apparel, even after she undergoes penance (Vas. XXI. 10, Manu XI. 177, Yāj. III. 297-98 and Mit. thereon); (6) that wives who are not guilty of acts mentioned in Yāj. I. 72, III. 297-298, Vas. 21. 10 or 23. 7 are to be given starving maintenance and residence near the house even if they do not perform penance (*vide* Mit. on Yāj. III. 298); (7) wives who are guilty of the acts mentioned in Yāj. I. 72, III. 297-298, if they refuse to perform penance, are to be refused even starving maintenance and residence near the husband's house (Mit. on Yāj. III. 298). The propositions about maintenance set out here are accepted as the modern Hindu Law by the courts in India.¹³³³

It has been shown above (p. 518) that Āp. postulated the identity of husband and wife in religious matters and Manu IX. 45 declares that the husband is one with his wife. But this identity of husband and wife was not accepted by the ancient sages for secular or legal purposes. The rights of husband and wife as to each other's property and the liability of each for the debts of the other will be dealt with later on in detail. It may suffice here to point out that the wife was not ordinarily liable for the debts contracted by the husband nor was the husband liable for the debts contracted by the wife alone, unless the debt was for family purposes (Yāj. II. 46). Similarly the husband could exercise no dominion over the wife's own property (her *strīdhana* or *peculium*) except in a famine or for a necessary religious purpose, or in disease or when he was imprisoned (Yāj. II. 147). These rules prescribed centuries ago compare in their fairness or reasonableness most favourably with the rules of the English law¹³³⁴ (as they prevailed before the Married Women's Property Act of 1882, 45 and 46 Vict. chap. 75), whereby the husband by the mere fact of marriage acquired free-hold interest, during the joint lives of himself and

1333. *Vide Parami v. Mahadevi* I. L. R. 34. Bom. 278 at p. 283 (*per* Chandavarkar J.).

1334. *Vide* Halsbury's Laws of England (Hailsham ed.) vol. 16 pp. 613-614.

his wife, in all estates of inheritance and life estates of which she was seised at the marriage or became seised during coverture, and an absolute interest in all the wife's personal chattels.

Nārada¹³³⁵ (*stripuṃsa*, v. 89) does not allow the husband or wife to lodge a complaint against one another with their relations or with the king. The Mit. on Yāj. II. 294 remarks 'though a judicial proceeding between husband and wife as plaintiff and defendant before the king is forbidden, still, if the king comes to know personally or indirectly of wrong done by the one to the other, the king must bring round the husband or the wife to the path of duty by appropriate punishment, otherwise¹³³⁶ the king incurs sin'. There were certain matters of which the king could take cognisance without the complaint of anybody: they were called *aparādhas* (they are ten) among which were included the murder of a woman, varṇasaṅkara, adultery, pregnancy of a widow from some person other than the husband, abortion¹³³⁷ &c. We have seen (p. 569) that Yāj. I. 76, Nārada (*stripuṃsa*, v. 95) make the husband liable to pay one-third of his estate or a fine for deserting a virtuous wife and there are many such provisions about the matters affecting the husband and wife in which the king interfered. In England¹³³⁸ at Common Law a wife could not sue her husband in tort (till the Married Women's Property Act) nor could a husband sue the wife in tort.

We must now turn to the position of women in general and wives in particular and the estimate of their character and worth made by ancient India. It has already been seen (p. 428) how the wife was looked upon as half of the husband, how in Vedic times women composed hymns and learnt the Vedas and how they co-operated with their husbands in all religious acts. On the whole their social position was much better (except as to rights of property) than what it became in later times. But

1335. ईर्ष्यासुयासहस्ये तु संवन्धे रागहेतुके । दम्पती विवदेयातां न ज्ञातिषु न राजनि ॥ नारद (स्त्रीपुंस v. 89).

1336. यद्यपि स्त्रीपुंसयोः परस्परमर्थिप्रत्यर्थितया दृष्टसमक्षं व्यवहारो निषिद्धस्तथापि प्रत्यक्षेण परंपरया वा विदिते तयोः परस्परविचारे दण्डादिना दम्पती निजधर्ममार्गे राज्ञा स्थापनीयौ, इतरथा दोषभागभवति । मिताक्षरा.

1337. Vide स्मृतिचन्द्रिका, व्यव० p. 28 quoting नारद, संवर्त and पितामह for ten अपराध, 22 पद, &c.

1338. Vide Salmond's Law of Torts, 9th ed. pp. 71-72.

even in the Vedic times there was an under-current of opinion which was hostile to women, sneered at them and treated them with scorn. Some of the passages from Vedic and classical Sanskrit literature eulogising women and the wife have been set out above (pp. 428ff). The passages noted below may be read in this connection.¹³³⁹ Vide Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 63-64, Manu III. 55-62, Yāj. I. 71, 74, 78, 82, Vas. Dh. S. 28. 1-9, Atri vv. 140-141 and 193-198, Ādiparva 74. 140-152, Śāntiparva 144. 6 and 12-17, Anuśāsana 46, Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa 21. 69-76. The Kāmasūtra III. 2 says that women are like flowers (kusuma-sadharmāṇo hi yoṣitaḥ). It has been seen (pp. 146-147) how way was to be made by all for the bride and the pregnant woman and it will be shown that the general opinion was that no woman was to be killed on any account (with one or two exceptions¹³⁴⁰ in ancient writers). Some of the smṛtikāras like Atri and Devala were so liberal as to say that women who had intercourse with one not of the same caste or who had conceived by such intercourse did not become outcasts, but only impure till delivery or next period when they became pure again and could be associated with, the child born of the adulterous connection being handed over to some one else for being brought up.¹³⁴¹ If a woman was raped she was not to be abandoned, but she became impure only till her next period (Atri 197-198) and Devala (48-49) prescribes purifications for a woman raped by *mlecchas* and conceiving thereby. In the Śāntiparva 267. 38 it is said that it is not the woman who is at fault, but it is the man who is at fault (when the woman goes astray). In the Varuṇapraghāsa¹³⁴²

1339. न गृहं गृहमित्याहुर्गृहिणी गृहमुच्यते । गृहं तु गृहिणीहीनमरण्यसदृशं मतम् ॥ शान्ति 144. 6; नास्ति भार्यासमो बन्धुः नास्ति भार्यासमा गतिः । नास्ति भार्यासमो लोके सहायो धर्मसंग्रहे । शान्ति 144. 16; यदा भार्या च भर्ता च परस्परवशाजुगौ । तदा धर्मार्थकामानां त्रयाणामपि संगतम् ॥ कथं भार्यामृते धर्ममर्थे वा पुरुषः प्रभो । प्रभोति काममथवा तस्यां त्रितयमाहितम् ॥ तथैव भर्तारमृते भार्या धर्मादिसाधने । न समर्था त्रिवर्गोयं दाम्पत्यं सखदाश्रितः ॥ मार्कण्डेयपुराण 21. 69-71.

1340. Vide Gaut. 23. 14 and Manu VIII. 371 (both prescribe that a woman should be devoured by dogs if she had intercourse with a male of a lower varṇa), Vas. Dh. S. 21. 1-5. Even this was modified later and only *parityaṅ* was allowed; vide Vas. 21. 10, Yāj. I. 72.

1341. असवर्णैस्तु यो गर्भः स्त्रीणां योनौ निषिध्यते । अमुद्धा सा भवेज्जारी यावदूर्ध्वं न मुञ्चति ॥ विमुक्ते तु ततः शल्ये रजश्चापि प्रदृश्यते । तदा सा मुच्यते नारी विमलं काञ्चनं यथा ॥ अत्रि verses 195-196, which are almost the same as देवल 50-51. अत्रि adds बलाज्जारी प्रमुक्ता वा चौरमुक्ता तथापि वा । न त्याज्या दूषिता नारी न कामोऽस्या विधीयते । कतुकाल उपासीत पुष्पकालेन मुच्यति ॥ vv. 197-198.

1342. यज्जारं सन्तं न प्रहृष्यादियं ज्ञातिं रुन्ध्यात् । असौ मे जार इति निर्दिशेत् । तै. ब्रा. I. 6. 5.

(one of the *cāturmāsyas*) the sacrificer's wife had to confess if she had a lover and even when she confessed she was allowed to co-operate with her husband in the sacrifice. Vide Tai. Br. I. 6. 5, Śat. Br. II. 5. 2. 20, Kātyāyana Śr. V. 5. 6-10.

As against the high eulogy and considerate treatment of women a few passages unfavourable to women may be cited. We have already seen (p. 503) how woman was said to be 'falsehood' incarnate (*Maitrāyaṇīya* S. I. 10. 11). Rg. VIII. 33. 17 says 'the mind of woman is uncontrollable'; Rg. X. 95. 15 and Śatapatha XI. 5. 1. 9 declare 'there is no friendship with women and they have the hearts of hyænas' (addressed to Purūravas about *Urvaśī*); Rg. V. 30. 9 'women are the weapons and army of the *dāsa*'. The Tai. S. VI. 5. 8. 2¹³⁴³ says 'therefore women are without strength, take no *dāya* (portion) and speak more weakly than even a wretched man'. This passage (which really refers to women not being entitled to a portion of Soma drink) is relied upon by Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 53) and ¹³⁴⁴ by Manu IX. 18 for prescribing the entire dependence of women on men, for depriving them of a share on partition or inheritance and of the privilege of Vedic mantras. The Śat. Br. (S. B. E. vol. 44. p. 446) says that woman, *śūdra*, a dog and a crow embody untruth, sin and darkness (XIV. 1. 1. 31). The same Brāhmaṇa (IV. 4. 2. 13, S. B. E. vol. 26, p. 366) remarks 'the wives being smitten (with ghee-the thunderbolt) and unmanned neither rule over themselves nor over *dāya* (share of property)' ¹³⁴⁵. Another passage of the Śatapatha (S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 300) says 'He thereby makes women to be dependent, whence women are sure to be attendant upon man' (XIII. 2. 2. 4). These passages establish that even in Vedic times women were often looked down upon, had no share in property and were dependent. The passages about the character of women contain no more than what male cynics and critics of all times and in all countries have attributed to women such as 'frailty, thy name is woman!'. In the Dharmaśāstra Literature the position of women became

1343. स्त्रियो हि दास आशुधानि चक्रे किं मा करन्नबला अस्य सेनाः । ऋ. V. 39. 9 ; तस्मात्स्त्रियो निरिन्द्रिया अदायादीरपि पापायुंस उपस्तितरं वदन्ति । ते. सं. VI. 5. 8. 2.

1344. निरिन्द्रिया अदायाश्च स्त्रियो मता इति श्रुतिः । बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 53 ; नास्ति स्त्रीणां क्रिया मन्त्रैरिति धर्मे व्यवस्थितिः । निरिन्द्रिया ह्यमन्त्राश्च स्त्रियोऽनुतामिति स्थितिः ॥ मनु IX. 18.

1345. वज्रो वा वाज्यमेतेन वै देवा वज्रेणाज्येनाग्नश्चैव पत्नीर्निराशुष्वंस्ता हता निरष्टा नात्मनश्च नैशत न दायस्य च नैशत । इतपथ IV. 4. 2. 13.

worse and worse as time went on, except as to rights of property. Gaut. 18. 1, Vas. Dh. S. V. 1 and 3, Manu V. 146-148 and IX. 2-3, Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 50-52, Nārada (dāyabhāga 31)-all declare ¹³⁴⁶ that women are not independent, but dependent in all matters on men and that in childhood, after marriage and in old age they are to be guarded by the father, the husband and the son respectively. Manu (IX. 2-3) refers to *rakṣā* (i. e. protection against harm or calamity), while Manu V. 146-148 declare a woman's dependence even in all domestic matters at all stages of her life on some male. Nārada (dāyabhāga vv. 28-30) adds ¹³⁴⁷ 'when a widow is sonless, her husband's relatives are the controlling authority as regards her maintenance, the application (of the husband's property) and guarding her against harm; if there be no relative or *sapiṇḍas* of the husband, then a woman's father's family has control of her; the creator assigned dependence to women as women even of good family fall into ruin by independence'. It has been seen above (pp. 561-562) that a woman's only concern was to serve her husband, and that she could perform other observances or undertake fasts and pilgrimages only with her husband's permission. Vide Hemādri (Vrata-khaṇḍa, part i. p. 362 where several texts are quoted including Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa 16. 61). ¹³⁴⁸

In the Mahābhārata, in the Manu-smṛti, in other smṛtis and the purāṇas women are charged with serious moral lapses. A few typical and striking passages from the great epic are

1346. अस्वतन्त्रा धर्मो स्त्री । गौतम 18. 1; अस्वतन्त्रा स्त्री पुरुषप्रधाना । वसिष्ठ V. 1; अस्वतन्त्राः स्त्रियः कार्याः पुरुषैः स्वैर्दिवानिज्ञम् । विषयेषु च सज्जन्यः संस्थाप्या आत्मनो वशे ॥ पिता रक्षति कौमारे भर्ता रक्षति यौवने । रक्षन्ति स्थविरं पुत्रा न स्त्री स्वातन्त्र्यमर्हति ॥ मनु IX. 2-3. The latter is the same as वसिष्ठ V. 3, Baud. Dh. II. 2. 52, Nārada, dāyabhāga v. 31, अनुशासनपर्व 20. 21.

1347. मृते भर्तर्यपुत्रायाः प्रतिपक्षः प्रभुः स्त्रियाः । विनियोगात्मरक्षासु भरणे स च ईश्वरः ॥ परिक्षीणे पतिकुले निर्मलुष्ये निराश्रये । तत्सपिण्डेषु वासस्तु पितृपक्षः प्रभुः स्त्रियाः । स्वातन्त्र्याद्विप्रणश्यन्ति कुले जाता अपि स्त्रियः । अस्वातन्त्र्यमतस्तासां प्रजापतिरकल्पयत् ॥ नारद (दायभागप्रकरण) vv. 28-30. मेधातिथि and कुल्लूक on मनु V. 147 quote the half verse तत्सपिण्डेषु स्त्रियाः and add another half verse 'पक्षद्वयावसाने तु राजा भर्ता स्त्रिया मतः', which makes the king the ultimate protector of all women who have no male guardians in the husband's or father's family.

1348. नास्ति स्त्रीणां पृथग्यज्ञो न आर्द्धं नाष्टुपोषितम् । भर्तृशुश्रूषयैवेता लोका-
निष्ठा न ब्रजन्ति हि ॥ मार्कण्डेय 16. 61.

cited below.¹³⁴⁹ 'The Sūtrakāra concludes that women are untruth' (Anuśāsana 19. 6); 'there is nothing more wicked than women, who are the edge of a razor, poison, snake and fire in one' (Anuśāsana 38. 12 and 29); there may be at most one pativrātā in hundreds of thousands of women' (Anuśāsana 19. 93); 'women are really uncontrollable but remain within bounds as regards their husbands simply because other men do not woo them and because they are afraid of servants' (Anuśāsana 38. 16); *vide* also Anuśāsana chap. 38. 24-25, chap. 39. 6-7 (women have the tricks of the demons Śambara, Namuci and others). The Rāmāyaṇa is not behind the Great Epic in condemning women 'This is the character of women seen in the three worlds viz. they are renegades from Dharma, fickle, cruel and create estrangement' (Araṇya-kāṇḍa¹³⁵⁰ 45. 29-30). In an uncharitable mood Manu (IX. 14-15) gives to women the following character 'they are lascivious, fickle-minded, devoid of love and come to dislike their husbands and resort to another man, whether handsome or ugly, simply because he is a man.' 'It is the nature of women to tempt men; therefore the wise do not act heedlessly with young women, who are able to lead a man astray whether he be learned or not' (Manu II. 213-214 = Anuśāsana 48. 37-38). Bṛhat-Parāśara¹³⁵¹ (Jivānanda's Collection, part 2, p. 121) says that the passion of women is eightfold of that of men. In modern times old men, though they might not know much of the śāstras, are often in the habit of repeating a verse which contains a list of the faults of women 'falsehood, thoughtless action, trickery, folly, great greed, impurity, cruelty—these are the natural faults of women.'¹³⁵²

There are some writers who even in ancient times could not bear the undeserved censure of women and most vigorously

1349. अनुशासन 20. 14 is प्रजापतिमतं ह्येतन्न स्त्री स्वातन्त्र्यमर्हति । ; अद्वताः स्त्रिय इत्येवं सूत्रकारो व्यवस्यति । अद्वताः स्त्रिय इत्येवं वेदेऽपि हि पठ्यते (अनुशा. 19. 6-7 (the first half probably refers to Manu IX. 18 or Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 52-53) न स्त्रीभ्यः किञ्चिदन्यद्वै पापीयस्त्वरमस्ति वै । क्षुरधारा विषं सर्पो वद्विरित्येकतः स्त्रियः । अनुशा. 38. 12 and 29.

1350. अनुशासन 38. 5-6 is almost the same as मनु IX. 14. स्वभावस्त्वेष नारीणां त्रिषु लोकेषु दृश्यते । विदुक्तधर्माश्चपलास्तीक्ष्णा भेदकराः स्त्रियः ॥ अरण्यकाण्ड 45. 29-30.

1351. स्त्रीनामष्टयुगः कामो व्यवसायश्च षड्युगः । लज्जा चतुर्गुणा तासामाहारश्च तद्वर्धकः ॥ बृहत्पराशर p. 121.

1352. अद्वतं साहसं माया मूर्खत्वमलिलोमिता । अज्ञौचित्यं निर्दयत्वं स्त्रीणां दोषाः स्वभावजाः ॥

protested against the injustice of these accusations. Varāhamihira (6th century A. D.) in his *Brhat-Samhitā* chap. 74 (ed. by Kern) makes a spirited defence of women and eulogises them highly. He first says that on women depend *dharma* and *artha* and from them man derives the pleasures of sense and the blessing of sons, that they are the Lakṣmī (goddess of Prosperity) of the house and should be always given honour and wealth. He then condemns those who following the path of asceticism and other-worldliness proclaim the demerits of women and are silent about their virtues and pertinently asks¹³⁵² 'tell me truly, what faults attributed to women have not been also practised by men? Men in their audacity treat women with contempt, but they really possess more virtues (than men).' He then cites the dicta of Manu in support (verses 7-10). "One's mother or one's wife is a woman; men owe their birth to women; O ungrateful wretches, how can happiness be your lot when you condemn them? The śāstras declare that both husband and wife are equally sinful if they prove faithless to the marriage vow; men care very little for that śāstra (while women do care); therefore women are superior to men. Oh! how great is the audacity of wicked men who heap abuse on women that are pure and blameless, like robbers who while themselves stealing raise a hue and cry 'stop, O thief!.' Man in privacy utters words of cajolry to woman, but there are no such words after the woman dies; while women, in gratitude, clasp the corpses of their husbands and enter the fire." It may be said that, barring great poets like Kālidāsa,¹³⁵⁴ Bāṇa and Bhavabhūti, in the classical period

1353. येप्यङ्गनानां प्रवदन्ति दोषान्वैराग्यमार्गेण गुणाच्च विहाय । ते दुर्जना मे मनसो वितर्कः सद्भाववाक्यानि न तानि तेषाम् ॥ प्रवृत्तं सत्यं कतरोऽङ्गनानां दोषस्तु यो नाचरितो मनुष्यैः । धाष्टर्च्येन पुंभिः प्रमदा निरस्ता गुणाधिकास्ता मनुनात्र चोक्तम् ॥ जाया वा स्याज्जनित्री वा स्यात्संभवः स्त्रीकृतो दृणाम् । हे कृतघ्नास्तयोनिन्दानां कुर्वतां वः कुतः सुखम् ॥ अहो धाष्टर्च्यमसाधूनां निन्दतामनयाः स्त्रियः । गुणतामिव चौराणां तिष्ठ चौरैति जल्पताम् ॥ पुरुषश्चदुलानि कामिनीनां कुरुते यानि रहो न तानि पश्चात् । सुकृतज्ञतयाङ्गना गतास्तुनवगुह्य प्रविशन्ति सप्तजिह्वम् ॥ बृहत्संहिता 74. 5, 6, 11, 15, 16. Verses 7 and 9 are the same as Baud. gr. II. 2. 63-64 and verse 10 is Manu III. 58; verses 7-8 are almost the same as वसिष्ठ. 28. 4 and 9.

1354. कालिदास and भवभूति both depict in very delicate and romantic terms the relation between a loving husband and wife 'युहिणी सचिवः सखी मिथः प्रियशिष्या ललिते कलाविधौ । करुणाविमुखेन मृत्युना हरता त्वां वद किं न मे हृतम् ॥' रघुवंश VIII. 66; 'मेयो मित्रं बन्धुता वा समग्रा सर्वे कामाः श्लेषधिर्जीवितं वा । स्त्रीणां भर्ता धर्मदाराश्च पुंसामित्यन्योन्यं वत्सयोर्ज्ञातमस्तु ॥' मालतीमाधव VI. Vide also the well-known verse अद्वैतं सुखदुःखयोरनुगुणं &c. in the उत्तररामचरित I.

Varāhamihira's was rather a solitary voice raised in defence of women and in the appreciation of their worth.

In the midst of this dark picture and undeserved condemnation of woman there is one very bright spot, viz. the high eulogy of and the reverence for the mother in all *smṛti* works. Gaut. (II. 56) first says that the *ācārya* (one's teacher of the Veda) is the highest among *gurus*, while some teachers hold that the mother is the highest. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 10. 28. 9 prescribes that a son must always serve his mother even if she has been an outcast (for some great sin), since the mother undertakes for her son numerous (troublesome) actions. Baud. Dh. S. (II. 2. 48) requires the son to maintain his mother, even though an outcast, without speaking to her. Vas. Dh. S. 13. 47 says 'a father who is an outcast may be abandoned, but a mother (though *patita*) is never an outcast to the son.'¹³⁵⁵ 'The *ācārya* exceeds by his greatness ten *upādhyāyas*, the father exceeds a hundred *ācāryas*, a mother exceeds a thousand fathers' says Manu II. 145 (= Vas. Dh. S. 13.48). Śaṅkha-Likhita¹³⁵⁶ give a very salutary piece of advice 'the son should not take sides (in a quarrel) between his father and mother: indeed he may (if he chooses) speak on the side of the mother alone, since the mother bore him (in her womb) and nourished him; the son, while living, would never be free from the debt he owes to his mother except by the performance of the Sautrāmāṇi sacrifice.' Yāj. I. 35 holds that the mother is superior to the guru, *ācārya* and *upādhyāya*. The Anuśāsana parva¹³⁵⁷ (105. 14-16) says that 'the mother excels in her greatness ten fathers or even the whole earth; there is no *guru* like the mother.' Śāntiparva chap. 267 contains a very high eulogy of the mother. Atri 151 says that there is no *guru* higher than the mother: The great

1355. आचार्यः श्रेष्ठो गुरुणां मातृत्वेके । गौ. II. 56 ; माता पुत्रत्वस्य भूयांसि कर्माण्यारभते तस्यां ह्युत्पृष्टा नित्या पतितायामपि । आप. ध. सू. I. 10. 28. 9 ; पतितामपि तु मातरं विभृयादनभिभाषणमाणः । बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 48 ; पतितः पिता परित्याज्यो माता तु पुत्रे न पतति । वसिष्ठ 13. 47.

1356. न मातापित्रोरन्तरं गच्छेत्पुत्रः । कामं मातुरेवाह्वयत्सा हि धारिणी पोषणी च । न पुत्रः प्रतिमुच्येतान्त्रय सौत्रामणिषागाज्जीवन्मुग्धान्मातुः । शङ्खलिखित quoted in सं. प्र. p. 479 ; vide also वि. र. p. 357, स्मृतिच० (I. p. 35).

1357. Vide Śāntiparva 108. 16-18 for verses very like अहंशासन 105. 14-16 ; नास्ति मातृसमा छाया नास्ति मातृसमा गतिः । नास्ति मातृसमं त्राणं नास्ति मातृसमा मिया ॥ शान्ति 267. 31 ; 'माता शुक्तरा भूमेः । वनपर्व 313. 60 ; नास्ति वेदात्परं शास्त्रं नास्ति मातुः परो गुरुः । नास्ति दानात्परं मित्रमिह लोके परत्र च । अत्रि 151 ; नास्ति सत्यात्परो धर्मो नास्ति मातृसमो गुरुः । शान्ति 343. 18.

Pāṇḍava heroes pay the highest honour to their mother Kuntī. The Ādiparva chap. 37 says that one may avert the consequences of all curses, but a mother's curse can never be averted ¹³⁵⁸.

Reading all that has been said in favour of and against women in ancient Sanskrit Literature it may be said that the higher minds of Hindu Society were quite aware of the worth of women, that they insisted on chastity as the highest virtue for them, that there was no doubt an undercurrent among common people of poor opinion about women, that those who valued an ascetic life and wanted to wean people away from worldly ties and attachments looked down upon women ('vairāgyamārgena' as Varāhamihira happily puts it) and exaggerated their faults. It has to be borne in mind that many of the passages condemning women are put in the mouth of persons who were for some reason or other angry with women or wronged by them or dissatisfied with their conduct. Further in assessing passages disparaging the character of women one maxim of the Pūrvamīmāṃsā system must not be lost sight of. The maxim is stated by Śābara (on Jaimini II. 4. 21) as follows: ¹³⁵⁹ 'the purpose of a text censuring anything is not censure pure and simple, but the purpose is to enjoin the performance of the opposite of what is censured and to praise such performance'. The object therefore of the authors that censured women was to inculcate the great value of chastity and obedience for women and not merely to paint a dark picture of them.

The rights of women as regards partition and inheritance will be discussed in detail later on. But a brief statement about them may be made here. Āp., Manu, and Nārada do not allow the widow of a sonless male to succeed as heir, while Gaut. 28. 19 appears to contemplate that she is an heir along with *sapinḍas* or *sagotras*. That the widow's right to succeed as heir to her deceased husband was not recognised in ancient

1358. सर्वेषामेव ज्ञापानां प्रतिपातो हि विद्यते । न तु मात्राभिज्ञानां मोक्षः कचन विद्यते ॥ आदिपर्व 37. 4.

1359. एकत्वेऽपि पराणि निन्दाशक्तिसमाप्तिवचनानि । जै. II. 4. 21; 'न हि निन्दा निन्द्यं निन्दितुं प्रयुज्यते । किं तर्हि । निन्दितादितरत्प्राप्तिरुच्यते । तत्र न निन्दितस्य प्रतिषेधो गम्यते किं त्वितरस्य विधिः ।' शबर (p. 640); the तन्त्रवार्तिक on जै. I. 2. 7. (p. 115) has 'यथा वक्ष्यति न हि निन्दा निन्द्यं निन्दितुं प्रवर्तते अपि तु विधेयं स्तोतुमिति.' Vide आनन्दगिरि on बृहदारण्यकभाष्यवार्तिक p. 808 for the same maxim.

times is clear from the Śākuntala (Act VI) where the minister writes to the king that the estate of a merchant dying at sea will escheat to the crown and will not go to his widow. Yāj. II. 135. mentions the widow as the first heir of a sonless man dying separate; Viṣṇu, Kātyāyana and others say the same. So in medieval times the rights of widows to property were better recognized than in the times of the early sūtra writers. In this respect the position of women improved in medieval times, though in the religious and other spheres their position became worse, as they were equated with śūdras. Yāska while explaining Rg. I. 124. 7 states that in the southern countries the widow of a sonless man goes to an assembly hall, stands upon a stool and when the members strike her with dice she gets the property of her deceased¹³⁶⁰ husband. This implies that in Northern India widows did not succeed to their husband's property in Yāska's time.

1360. अभ्रातेव पुंस एति प्रतीची गतरिगिव सनये धनानाम् । क्र. I. 124. 7 ; गर्ता-
रोहिणीव धनलाभाय दक्षिणाजी । गर्तः सभास्थाणुः । गुणालेः । सत्यसंगरो भवति । तं तत्र या
अपुत्रा या अपतिका सा आरोहति तां तत्र अक्षेण आह्नन्ति सा रिक्थं लभते । निरुक्त III. 5.

CHAPTER XII

THE DUTIES OF A WIDOW, SOME PRIVILEGES OF WOMEN AND THE *PURDA* SYSTEM

Vidhavādharmāḥ

So far the social position and the duties and rights of a wife during her husband's life-time have been considered. We shall now consider the rules laid down for a wife if she has the heavy misfortune to become a widow.¹³⁶¹

The word *vidhavā* occurs several times in the *Rgveda* (e. g. IV. 18. 12, X. 18. 7, X. 40. 2 and 8); but these passages contain very little that is indicative of their condition in society except *Rg. X. 40. 2* (vide under *niyoga*). *Rg. I. 87. 3*¹³⁶² says 'in the rapid movements of the Maruts the earth trembles like a woman deprived of her husband.' That shows that widows trembled either from sorrow or from fear of molestation and ill-treatment.

The *Baud. Dh. S.*¹³⁶³ II. 2. 66-68 prescribes that the widow of the departed should give up for one year honey, meat, wine and salt and should sleep on the ground; according to *Maudgalya* (she should so act) for six months; after that period, if she is sonless, she may procreate a son from her brother-in-law if the elders consent.' *Vas. Dh. S.* (17. 55-56) contains similar provisions. *Manu* (V. 157-160) contains rules that have been repeated in almost all *smṛtis* 'a woman when her husband is dead, may, if she chooses, emaciate her body by subsisting on flowers, roots and fruits, but she should not even take the name of a stranger male. Till her death she should be forbearing, observe vows, should be celibate and should hanker after that super-eminent code of conduct that is prescribed for women devoted to their husbands. On her husband's death, if a virtuous woman abides by the rule of celibacy, she goes to heaven though she be sonless, as the ancient perpetual

1361. Vide *Colebrooke's Digest of Hindu Law*, vol. II. chap. III pp. 158-161 for duties of widows who choose to survive their husbands; vide 'Die Frau' pp. 86-88 where *Winternitz* draws a dismal and somewhat exaggerated picture of the condition of the Hindu widow.

1362. त्रैषामज्जेषु विधुरेव रेजते भूमियामेषु यद्ध युञ्जते ह्यने । ऋ. I. 87. 3.

1363. संवत्सरं प्रेतपत्नी मधुमांसमद्यलवणानि वर्जयेद्यः शरीरतः । पश्मास्तानिति मौद्गल्यः । अत ऊर्ध्वं गृहभिरनुमता देवराज्जनयेत्युत्रमुपवा ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 66-68.

students (like Sanaka) did'. Kātyāyana¹³⁶⁴ similarly provides 'a sonless widow preserving the bed of her husband (unsullied) and residing with her elders and being self-controlled (or forbearing) should enjoy her husband's property till her death; after her the heirs of her husband would get it. A widow engrossed in religious observances and fasts, abiding by the vow of celibacy, always bent on restraining her senses and making gifts would go to heaven even though sonless.' Parāśara IV. 31 is almost the same as Manu V. 160. Brhaspati¹³⁶⁵ says 'the wife is declared to be half of a man's body, she participates equally in the husband's merit and sin; a virtuous wife, whether she burns herself on her husband's funeral fire or lives after him, tends to the (spiritual) benefit of her husband'. Vṛddha-Hārīta (XI. 205-210) prescribes what a widow should do all her life. 'She should give up adorning her hair, chewing betel-nut, wearing perfumes, flowers, ornaments and dyed clothes, taking food from a vessel of bronze, taking two meals a day, applying collyrium to her eyes; she should wear a white garment, should curb her senses and anger, she should not resort to deceits and tricks, should be free from laziness and sleep, should be pure and of good conduct, should always worship Hari, should sleep on the ground at night on a mat of kuśa grass, she should be intent on concentration of mind and on the company of the good.' Bāṇa in his Harṣacarita (VI, last para) indicates that widows did not apply eye-salve to their eyes nor *rocānā* (yellow pigment) to their face and simply tied their hair.¹³⁶⁶ Pracetas¹³⁶⁷ forbids to an ascetic and a widow the chewing of betel leaves, ceremonial bath (with oil &c.) and taking meal in a vessel of bell-metal. The Ādiparva (160. 12) says 'just as birds flock to a piece of flesh left on the ground, so all men woo (or try to seduce) a woman whose

1364. अपुत्रा शयनं भर्तुः पालयन्ती शुरौ स्थिता । सुजीतामरणाल्क्षान्ता दयादा ऊर्ध्वमाष्टपुंः ॥ व्रतोपवासनिरता ब्रह्मचर्ये व्यवस्थिता । दमदानरता नित्यमपुत्रापि दिवं व्रजेत् ॥ कात्यायन quoted in वीर० pp. 626-627; the first verse is also quoted in दायभाग, स्मृतिच. and other works.

1365. शरीरार्थं स्मृता जाया पुण्यापुण्यफले समः । अन्वारूढा जीवती च साध्वी भर्तुर्हिताय सा ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by अपरार्क p. 111.

1366. जनितवेणीबन्धनि निरखनरोचनारोचीपि चषकमधुनि सुखकमलप्रतिविम्बान्य-दृश्यन्त भटीनाम् । हृषचरित VI, last para.

1367. ताम्बूलाम्बुजं चैव कांस्यपात्रे च भोजनम् । यतिश्च ब्रह्मचारी च विधवा च विवर्जयेत् ॥ मन्वेतस्मृतिच. I. p. 222 and सुद्धितत्त्व p. 235; compare ताम्बूलोऽभर्तुःकक्षीणां यतीनां ब्रह्मचारिणाम् । एकैकं मांसदुल्यं स्यान्मिलितं तु सुरासमम् ॥ quoted in स्मृतिच. (वर्णाश्रम०) p. 161.

husband is dead'; while the Śāntiparva (148. 2) remarks 'all widows are in sorrow even if they have many sons.'¹³⁶⁸ The Skandapurāṇa (Kāśikhanda, chap. 4, vv. 71-106 and III Brahmāranya section chap. 7, vv. 67-81) has long passages on the duties of widows, many verses from which are quoted in the Madanapārijāta (pp. 202-203), the Nirṇayasindhu, Dharma-sindhu and other nibandhas. A few striking verses may be translated here. The Skandapurāṇa (III, Brahmāranya section chap. 7, verses 50-51) says 'The widow is more inauspicious than all other inauspicious things; at the sight of a widow no success can be had in any undertaking; excepting one's (widowed) mother all widows are void of auspiciousness; a wise man should avoid even their blessings like the poison of a snake'¹³⁶⁹. The Kāśikhanda of the same purāṇa, chap. 4, delivers itself thus 'the tying up into a braid of the hair by the widow leads to the bondage of the husband; therefore a widow should always shave her head. She should always take one meal a day and never a second; or she may perform the observance of fast for a month or undergo the penance of cāndrāyana. A widow who sleeps on a cot would make her husband fall (in hell). A widow should never wash her body with fragrant unguents nor should enjoy the fragrance of sweet smelling things; she should everyday perform *tarpana* with sesame, water and kuśa grass for her husband, his father and grandfather after repeating their names and gotra; she should not sit in a bullock cart even when about to die, she should not put on a bodice, should not wear dyed garments and should observe special vows in Vaiśākha, Kārtika¹³⁷⁰ and Māgha.' The verse 'vidhavā-kabari-bandho &c' (Skanda,

1368. उत्सृष्टमामिषं भूमौ प्रार्थयन्ति यथा खगाः । प्रार्थयन्ति जनाः सर्वे पतिहीनां तथा स्त्रियम् ॥ आदिपर्व 160. 12; सर्वापि विधवा नारी बहुपुत्रापि शोचते ॥ शान्तिपर्व 148. 2.

1369. अमङ्गलेभ्यः सर्वेभ्यो विधवा स्यादमङ्गला । विधवादर्शनात् सिद्धिः कापि जातु न जायते ॥ विहाय मातरं नैका सर्वा मङ्गलवर्जिताः । तदाशिषमपि प्राक्षस्त्यजेदाशीविषोप-
माम् ॥ स्कन्दपुराण III, ब्रह्मारण्य 7. 50-51.

1370. विधवाकबरीबन्धो भर्तृबन्धाय जायते । शिरसो वपनं तस्मात् कार्यं विधवया सदा ॥ एकाहारः सदा कार्यो न द्वितीयः कदाचन । मासोपवासं वा कुर्याच्चान्द्रायणमथापि वा ॥ पर्यङ्कशायिनी नारी विधवा पातयेत्यतिम् । नैवाङ्गोद्धर्तनं कार्यं स्त्रिया विधवया क्वचित् । गन्धद्रव्यस्य संभोगौ नैव कार्यस्तथा पुनः । तर्पणं प्रत्यहं कार्यं भर्तृस्तिलकुशोदकैः । तत्पितुस्त-
त्पितृश्रवापि नामयोत्रादिपुष्पकम् । नाधिरोद्देनद्वाहं प्राणैः कण्ठगतैरपि । कञ्चुकं न परी-
दध्याहासो न विकृतं वसेत् । वैशाखे कार्तिके माघे विशेषनियमं चरेत् ॥ स्कन्दपुराण, काशी-
खण्ड 4. vv. 75. ff.; all these are quoted by the निर्णयसिन्धु p. 626, मदन-
पारिजात (pp. 202-203), स्पृतिस्तुक्ताफल p. 160.

Kāśikhaṇḍa 4.74) is the only verse on which the medieval writers rely for prescribing continual tonsure of widows. That chapter begins by extolling the pativrata (Bṛhaspati does it with regard to Lopāmudrā, the wife of Agastya). It passes one's understanding why when a pativrata whose husband is living is before Bṛhaspati he should wax eloquent over the duties of widows (verses 71-106). Therefore this portion appears to be an interpolation in the Skandapurāṇa itself. In *Lakshmbai v. Ramchandra* I. L. R. 22 Bom. 590, it was held that the text 'vidhavā-kabari-bandho' is of doubtful validity (p. 594). Besides 69 verses of this chapter 4 are common to chap. 7 of the Dharmāranya section of the Skandapurāṇa (III) which precedes it. There is no reason why they should have been repeated. The Nirṇayasindhu quotes a passage from the Brahmapurāṇa as cited in the Pṛthvicandrodaya to the effect that śrāddha food should not be got prepared by a widow belonging to another gotra.¹³⁷¹

The position of the Hindu widow was miserable and her lot was most unenviable. She was looked upon as inauspicious and so could take part in no festivities, such as those on marriage. She had not only to lead a life of perfect celibacy, even if she was a child widow, but she had to act like an ascetic, being poorly fed (only once a day) and poorly clad. Her rights to property were negligible. Even if the husband died sonless she did not originally succeed as shown above (p. 582). Later on her position as an heir was improved; but even then she could ordinarily enjoy only the income of the property and could transfer it only for the legal necessities of the family (including herself) or for the spiritual benefit of her husband. In a joint Hindu family a widow had only the right of maintenance (except in Bengal where she had more rights), which would be forfeited if she became unchaste and persisted in that course.¹³⁷² If she returned to a moral life then she may be entitled to bare starving maintenance (vide above p. 573). If her husband had separate property and left a son or sons, the widow was only entitled to maintenance. This was the law in British India till very recently. Recently the position of the

1371. पृथ्वीचन्द्रोदये नाहो । रजस्वलां च पाखण्डां पुंश्चलीं पतितां तथा । त्यजेच्छूद्रां तथा वन्धवां विधवां चान्यगोत्रजाम् । वर्जयेच्छूद्रपाकार्यममातृपितृवंशजाम् ॥ निर्णय-सिन्धु III, उत्तरार्ध p. 417.

1372. *Vide Honama v. Timannabhat* I. L. R. 1 Bom. 559; *Bhikubai v. Hariba* I. L. R. 49 Bom. 459.

widow of a member in a joint Hindu family and of the widow of a person who leaves separate property has been improved by Act XVIII of 1937 as amended by Act XI of 1938.

One subject that arouses bitter controversies is the practice of tonsuring widows among brāhmanas and certain other castes. A few words must be said on this. It is clear from the verse (vidhavā-kabari-bandho &c.) of the Skandapurāṇa quoted in the Madanapārijāta and other nibandhas that for some time at least before the 14th century A. D. (when the Madanapārijāta was composed) tonsure of widows was in vogue. How and exactly when this practice arose cannot be established with certainty. That it is comparatively a later innovation can, however, be demonstrated. Two distinct propositions have to be made out, first, that widows were tonsured on the death of their husbands, just as sons were tonsured and secondly, that widows were required by the texts to tonsure themselves continually from time to time till their death, though sons who had to tonsure themselves on their father's death are not required to do so afterwards. The advocates of this practice rely upon three Vedic passages, viz. Rg. X. 40. 2, Āp. M. Pāṭha I. 4. 9, and Atharvaveda 14.2. 60, Rg. X. 40. 2 (cited below p. 606) refers to vidhavā only and probably to niyoga, but there is nothing about tonsure in that verse. Some modern orthodox Pandits ingeniously argue from the explanation of the word 'vidhavā' in the Nirukta (III. 15 vidhāvanād-vā iti Carmaśirāḥ). Carmaśiras is the name of a former teacher according to all commentators of the Nirukta, but these pandits interpret it by a *tour de force* as a synonym of vidhavā ('having only the bare skin on her head'). About this interpretation the less said the better. Āp. M. P. I. 5. 9 contains the word 'vikeśī' which is translated as the appellation of a female goblin in S. B. E. vol. 30 p. 187 'mayst thou not be beaten at thy breast by she goblin, the rough haired ¹³⁷³ one'. Even taking 'vikeśī' as referring to the maiden who is being married the meaning is 'mayst thou, with dishevelled hair, not beat thy breast (through grief)'. The word 'vikeśī' does not mean 'a widow whose hair is tonsured'; it ordinarily means 'a woman

1373. मा ते गृहे निशि घोष उत्थादन्यत्र त्वद्रुदृत्यः संविशन्तु । मा त्वं विकेश्युर आ-
वधिष्ठा जीवपत्नी पतिलोके विराज पश्यन्ती प्रजां सुमनस्यमानाम् ॥ आप. म. पा. I. 5. 9.
Vide आप. गृ. V. 1 where this मन्त्र along with others is prescribed for
offering śhutis in the marriage rite. It is also employed for the same
purpose in हिरण्य. गृ. I. 19. 7, भारद्वाज गृ. I. 14.

with dishevelled hair'. The third passage is Atharvaveda ¹³⁷⁴ 14. 2. 60, that is a verse in a marriage hymn which means 'if this daughter of thine has bewailed with loosened hair in thy house, doing evil by her wailing, from that sin let Agni and Savitr release thee'. Here it is impossible to hold that 'vikeśī' means tonsured, as this mantra is part of the marriage hymn and Agni is asked to remove the blemish due to the girl's weeping at the approaching prospect of separation from her parents. There is no comment of Sāyana on this passage but elsewhere in the Atharvaveda when that word occurs as in Atharva XI. 9. 14 he paraphrases it by 'vikīrpakeśī' which does not mean 'with tonsured hair' but only 'having dishevelled hair'. Therefore there is no reference whatever to the tonsure of widows in the Veda, much less an injunction as to it. In the Baud. Pitrmedhasūtra, ¹³⁷⁵ elaborate rules are laid down about the cremation of one who had kindled the sacred Vedic fires. In I. 4. 3 it is said 'his wives led by the youngest should follow the cortege with dishevelled hair and throwing dust on their shoulders' and this they have to repeat several times (vide I. 4. 12-13, I. 5. 5-7, I. 5. 12-14) on the way to the cemetery. It is also said that they go round (the corpse) thrice with their hair gathered together (I. 4. 13). Then in I. 12. 7 shaving of the hair and moustache is prescribed for the close relatives of the deceased (amātyas) who are present, his wives are not mentioned in this connection and II. 3. 17 expressly forbids tonsure of wives.

Manu and Yāj. dilate on the duties of widows, but they are entirely silent about tonsure. Nor does any other ancient smṛti refer to it. On the contrary Vṛddha-Hārta (XI. 206 quoted above p. 584) asks the widow not to deck her hair, among other things which she is not to do. This makes it clear that the widows kept their hair. The word 'keśarañjanam' is to be dissolved as 'keśānām rañjanam' and not as 'keśāśca rañjanam ca' (as Vṛddha-Hārta XI. 103 makes it clear by employing 'keśānām rañjanārtham vā). It can be shown that

1374. यदीयं दुहिता तव विकेश्यरुद्धगृहे रोदेन कृण्वत्यक्षम् । अग्निष्ठा तस्मादेनसः सविता च प्रसुञ्चतात् ॥ अथर्व 14. 2. 60.

1375. अस्य भार्याः कनिष्ठप्रथमाः प्रकीर्णकेशयो व्रजेयुः पांसुंस्तेष्वावपमानाः 'खल्वयं स्वा स्वादुषं नो एवाधमं' इति । नो. पितृमेधसूत्र I. 4. 3; एवममात्या एवं स्त्रियः संयम्य केशाच्च यथेतं त्रिः पुनः प्रति परियन्ति । I. 4. 13; एतस्मिन्कालेऽस्यामात्या केशाश्चमश्रुणि धापयन्ते ये संनिधाने भवन्ति । I. 12. 7; न स्त्रीणां केशावपनं विद्यते न चित्तिर्नेष्टका न पुनर्दोहो दास्यस्त्रीणां पात्राणि भवन्तीति विज्ञायते । II. 3. 17.

at least kṣatriya widows never tonsured their head. In the Mahābhārata whenever the widows of the fallen warriors are described they are always referred to as 'having dishevelled hair' and there is not a single reference to tonsure¹³⁷⁶ of widows. In the Harṣacarita, Harṣa¹³⁷⁷ in his soliloquy on the death of his father Prabhākaravardhana says 'may the Glory of super-eminent man-hood tie up her hair in the way in which widows tie up their hair'. In the Pehoa *praśasti* of king Mahendrapāla of Kanoj (E. I. vol. 1. p. 246 verse 16) the widows of his enemies are spoken of as shedding tears on their cheeks and having long (not braided) and profuse¹³⁷⁸ tresses.

The orthodox pandits rely on a verse in Vedavyāsa-smṛti¹³⁷⁹ II. 53 'a brāhmaṇa woman should enter fire, clasping the dead body of her husband; if she lives (does not become *sañi*) she being *tyaktakeśā* should emaciate her body by *tapas*'. The reading 'brāhmaṇi' for 'jivanti' is not good, as the word 'brāhmaṇi' is redundant having occurred in the first half and as the second half refers to the fact of her surviving after her husband. In this verse the injunction relates only to the emaciation of the body (*śoṣayet*), the word 'tyaktakeśā' being only an attribute of the subject is no part of the predicate, which alone is enjoined. The general rule laid down by the Mīmāṃsā is (III. 1. 13-15, the *grahaikatvanyāya*)¹³⁸⁰ that the attributes of a subject are no part

1376. e. g. 'प्रकीर्णकेशाः क्रोशन्तीः कुररीरिव माधव। स्त्रीपर्व 16. 18 (गान्धारी describes her daughters-in-law); 'प्रकीर्णकेशां सुश्रोणीं दुर्घोषननुभाङ्गाम्। स्वमवेदनिभां पश्य कृष्ण लक्ष्मणमातरम् ॥ स्त्रीपर्व 17. 25; vide स्त्रीपर्व 21. 6, 24. 7, आश्रमवासिपर्व 25. 16; 'प्रकीर्णमूर्धजाः सर्वा विमुक्ताभरणज्जः। उरांसि पाणिभिर्नृत्योत्थलपत्रं कुरुणं स्त्रियः ॥ मौसलपर्व 7. 17. (on the death of Vasudeva).

1377. ब्रह्मन् वैधव्यवेणीं वरमनुष्यता। हर्षचरित V. (5th para from end); vide हर्षचरित VI. last para quoted above in note 1366.

1378. करतलस्थगिताधरपल्लवाः प्रतुक्कान्तिकपीलतलोद्गमः। सिसिचुरश्चलैर्यदति-स्त्रियः सरलितयचुरालकजलकाः ॥ (E. I. vol. 1 p. 246 verse 16).

1379. मृतं भर्तारमादाय ब्राह्मणी वह्निमावेशेत्। जीवन्ती (v. l. ब्राह्मणी) चेत् त्यक्तकेशा तपसा शोषयेद् वयुः ॥ वेदव्यास II. 53.

1380. The *grahaikatvanyāya* is as follows: The text ग्रहं संमार्ष्टि does not mean that a single sacrificial vessel is to be cleansed, but rather that all are to be cleansed. The singular number (in *graham*) is an attribute of the subject about which cleansing is predicated and so it is no part of the injunction. Vide my notes to the Vyavahāra-mayūkha pp. 83-84, 121-122, where examples of the application of this maxim are given. The Pandits try to apply the rules in Jaimini III. 3. 34-46, but those rules are inapplicable, since in the passage of Veda-Vyāsa there is a verb in the potential mood, while in the vedic sentence interpreted in Jaimini III. 3. 34-46 there is no verb in the potential mood.

of the injunction. There is no injunction about *keśa* (hair) in the Vedavyāsa passage. Besides the word *tyaktakeśā* (who has given up hair) may possibly be made to yield three meanings, viz. (1) one who has given up or is unmindful of dressing or decking her hair, (2) one whose hair is given up in accordance with the prescription of some *smṛtis* that only two finger-breadths of tresses are to be cut off when doing penance for *govadha* &c. in the case of women (*vide* Parāśara IX. 54-55, Āṅgīras 163, Yama 54); (3) one whose head is tonsured. For the first meaning *vide* Raghuvamśa IX. 14 (where 'analakām' is explained by Mallinātha as 'who have given up ornamenting the hair'). For this meaning of 'tyakta' *vide* Bhagavadgītā I. 33 'tyaktajīvitāḥ'. 'Tyakta' by itself never means tonsured. The third meaning will be only implied if at all, while the first two are the usual meanings. Further, the interpretation of the Veda-Vyāsa *smṛti* II. 53 given by the pandits is liable to the fault called *vākyabheda* (i. e. it lays down two injunctions in one and the same sentence), as they say that Veda-Vyāsa calls upon widows to tonsure themselves and to emaciate their body. Besides, if Veda-Vyāsa really meant to enjoin tonsure, the verse could easily have been made to read 'jīvaṁti ced vapet keśān tapasā &c.' Lastly assuming that Veda-Vyāsa refers to tonsure, there is conflict among *smṛtis*, since Vṛddha-Hārīta (quoted above) allows her to keep her hair, and since an option results when two texts of equal authority conflict (Gaut. I. 5).¹³⁸¹

The Mit. on Yāj. III. 325 quotes a text of Manu (not found in the printed Manu) 'shaving of the hair is not desired in the case of learned men, the king and women, except in the case of one guilty of *mahāpātaka* or the killer of a cow and a *brahma-cāri* guilty of sexual intercourse.'¹³⁸² The Mit. nowhere refers to tonsure as one of the obligatory matters for widows.

The orthodox pandits further rely upon Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 10. 6, its explanation in the Mit. on Yāj. III. 17 and the explanation of the Mit. in the commentary, Bālabhāṭṭi. Āpastamba's sūtra is delivered when the context is about cessation of Veda study (*anadhyāya*). Āp. says '(the student) shall cease studying Veda for 12 days if his mother, father or teacher dies. In the

1381. मुख्यबलविरोधे विकल्पः । गौतम I. 5.

1382. विद्वद्भिर्गृह्यप्राणिनां नेष्यते केशवापनम् । ऋते महापातकिनो गोहन्तृश्चावकीर्णः ॥ इति मनुस्मरणात् । मिता on या. III. 325.

case of the death of these he must also bathe for the same number of days. Persons who are younger than (the relation deceased) must shave their hair.¹³⁸³ Some declare that students who have returned home on completion of brahmacharya shall never shave except when engaged in a śrauta sacrifice. In sattras even the top-lock must be shaved'. In this there is no reference to women, much less to widows and lesser still to the tonsure of widows. The reference to śrauta sacrifices, sattra, and śikhā indicates that only males are in view. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 17 explains at length Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 10. 6. It gives two senses of 'anubhāvin' viz. those who experience sorrow on the death of a person i. e. his sapinda (from the root 'bhū' with 'anu,' to experience) and those who are born after the deceased i. e. who are younger than the deceased (from 'bhū' with 'anu' to be born after). The Mit. then combines¹³⁸⁴ these and remarks 'those sapindas of the deceased who are younger than the latter have to shave themselves on the death of a relative'. This is its own view. It then refers to the view of some that 'anubhāvin' in Āp. means 'son' and those latter rely on a restrictive text 'shaving is declared on seven occasions only, viz. on the Ganges, in the Bhāskara-kṣetra, on the death of one's parents or teacher, at the time of consecrating śrauta fires, and at the time of a soma sacrifice'. It is clear that the Mit. does not expressly mention the wife or widow here. Supposing that she is impliedly referred to as a sapinda and as younger than her husband, this will at the most come to the requirement that on the death of the husband the wife had to undergo shaving, just as her son would have to do. But this passage cannot be used to support continual shaving of widows throughout life. Really 'anubhāvinām' in Āp. cannot include the wife; since if women were to be included by the rule of *ekāśeṣa* (vide Pāṇini I. 2. 67) the absurd conclusion would follow that the daughters of the deceased and his younger brother's wives (who are all sapindas and younger) would have

1383. अनुभाविनां च परिवापनम् । आप. ध. सू. I. 3. 10. 6.

1384. वपनं च केषामित्याकाङ्क्षायामापस्तम्बेनोक्तम्-अनुभाविनां च परिवापनम्-इति । अयमर्थः । श्रावं दुःखमनुभवन्तीत्यनुभाविनः सपिण्डास्तेषां चाविशेषेण वपनमुत्ताप-वयसमित्यपेक्षायामिदमेवोपतिष्ठते-अनुभाविनां च परिवापनमिति । अनु पश्चाद्भवन्ती-त्यनुभाविनोऽल्पवयसस्तेषां वपनमिति । अनुभाविनः पुत्रा इति केचिन्मन्यन्ते । गङ्गायां भास्कर-क्षेत्रे मातापित्रोर्दुर्धृतौ । आधानकाले सोमे च वपनं सप्तसु स्मृतम् ॥ इति नियमदर्शनात् । मित्ता. on या. III. 17.

to be shaved. The *Nirṇayasindhu* ¹³⁸⁵ (composed in 1612 A. D.) and the *Bālabhaṭṭi* (composed towards the end of the 18th century) were both familiar with the tonsure of widows and so they interpret *Āp.* and the *Mit.* as requiring shaving for the wife on the 10th day after the death of the husband and rely on a text of *Vyāsa* quoted in *Aparārka*. The *Bālabhaṭṭi* says "the words 'on the death of the mother and father' are only illustrative and so the same rule applies to the husband's death." Even conceding all this far-fetched interpretation, there is no authority for the continual tonsure of widows throughout their lives in these passages. It may be noted that the *Madana-pārijāta* ¹³⁸⁶ which contains the verse (*vidhavā-kabari-bandho* &c. quoted above) does not include the widow among 'anubhāvinām', but only male sapindas and sons.

The foregoing discussion leads to the following conclusions. There is no express Vedic authority for the tonsure of widows. The *gṛhya* or *dharma sūtras* do not refer to it; nor do important *smṛtis* like those of *Manu* and *Yāj.* If one or two *smṛti* verses of doubtful import seem to refer to it, other *smṛtis* like *Vṛddha-Hārta* are to an opposite effect. Some of the *smṛti* texts only refer, if at all, to one shaving on the husband's death, but there is no *smṛti* passage prescribing continual shaving for widows. There is only the *Skandapurāṇa* passage expressly requiring tonsure of widows. The *Mit.* and *Aparārka* are silent about it. It appears that the practice was gradually evolved after the 10th or 11th century. As widows were equated with *yatis* for several injunctions (*vide* note 1367 above) and as the latter shaved themselves, widows were gradually required to do so. By rendering them ugly it might have been intended to keep them chaste. Probably the example of Buddhist and Jaina nuns may have also suggested the cruel practice. We find from the *Cullavagga* ¹³⁸⁷ that Buddhist nuns

1385. अनुभाविनः पुत्राद्य इत्येके । पुत्रः पत्नी च वपनं कुर्यादन्ते यथाविधि । पिण्डदानोचितोऽपि कुर्यादित्थं समाहितः । इत्यपराकौ व्यासोक्तेः । निर्णयसिन्धु III, उत्तरार्ध p. 591; *vide* बालम्भट्टे on प्रायश्चित्त (pp. 49-51 of Gharpure's ed.) 'अत्र पित्रादिग्रहणं भर्तुरप्युपलक्षणम् । पुत्रः पत्नी समाहितः । इति व्यासेन पत्न्या अपि वपनविधानात् ।' pp. 50-51.

1386. तथा वपनं दुःस्त्रानुभाविभिः सर्वैः सपिण्डैः पुत्रैरेव स्वस्वदेशाचारादुसारेण प्रथमदिनप्रभृति विषमदिनेष्वपि आह्वादिप्रदानात्पूर्वं कर्तव्यम् । यदाह आपस्तम्बः । अनुभाविनां च परिधापनमिति । मदनपारिजात p. 415.

1387. *Vide* S. B. E. vol. 20 (*Vinaya texts*) p. 321. For Jaina nuns cutting off their tresses or plucking their hair, *vide* *Uttarādhyāyana* XXII. 30. (S. B. E. vol. 45, p. 116).

cut off their hair and put on orange-coloured robes. In Mahārāṣṭra brāhmaṇa widows a few years ago wore a garment that was reddish (and even now a few old widows do wear it). At all events the practice is not very old and hardly any digest before the Madanapārijāta (14th century) quotes the Skandapurāṇa text. The practice is dying out and deserves to be suppressed at once, though strange insistence on it sometimes obtains public notoriety. Recently the worshippers in the famous shrine of Viṭhobā at Pandharpur in Mahārāṣṭra prevented an untensured brāhmaṇa widow from having *darśana* of the idol in the customary way i. e. by placing the head on the feet of the idol, while they were prepared to allow untensured widows of all castes (except the so called untouchables), and even Hindu prostitutes in the keeping of Christians or Mahomedans to have *darśana* in that way. The matter came before a civil court, where it was decided in favour of the widow that no such discrimination could be allowed to prevail, but owing to certain unforeseen circumstances the case did not come before the Bombay High Court.

It would be of interest to many to learn that among one sect (the Tenguḷai) of the Śrī-vaiṣṇavas (followers of Rāmānuja) tonsure of widows has been forbidden for centuries, though that sect is most orthodox in other matters.¹³⁸⁸ The Śūdrakamalākara remarks that widows in Gauda keep their hair.¹³⁸⁹

From very ancient times, it appears the idea was that women should not be killed on any account. The Śat. Br. (XI. 4. 3. 2, S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 62) says¹³⁹⁰ 'people do not kill a woman, but rather take (anything) from her (leaving her) alive'. It was only the king who was authorised, according to Viśvarūpa, to punish a woman to death for adultery with a man of a very low caste (vide Gaut. and Manu VIII. 371 quoted above on p. 572), but the king had to undergo a slight penance for doing this (vide Yaj. III. 268). Manu XI. 190 ordains that one who killed a woman was not to be associated with, even after he performed the requisite penance. Manu IX. 232 calls

1388. Vide Indian Antiquary vol. III pp. 136-137 for passages quoted from many works forbidding the tonsure of widows.

1389. अत एव गौडस्त्रीणां विधवानां शिखा दृश्यते । शूद्रकमलाकर p. 50.

1390. स्त्री वैषा यच्छीर्णं वै स्त्रियं घ्नन्त्युत त्वस्या जीवन्त्या एवाददत इति । शतपथ XI. 4. 3. 2.

upon the king to punish with death those who murder women, children and brāhmanas. The Mahābhārata frequently refers to this chivalrous rule. Ādiparva¹³⁹¹ 158. 31 says 'those who know dharma declare that women are not to be killed'. The Sabhāparva 41. 13 prescribes 'one's weapons should not be directed against women, cows, brāhmanas, against one who gave livelihood or shelter'. In the Śāntiparva (135. 14) even thieves are instructed not to kill women. Vide also Ādi. 155. 2, 217. 4, Vanaparva 206. 46. The Rāmāyaṇa (Bālakāṇḍa) also breathes this sentiment, when Rāma was called upon to kill the ogress Tāṭakā.

Even for the most serious offence of adultery with a man of a low caste Yāj. II. 286 prescribes for the woman the punishment of cutting the ear &c. Similarly Vṛddha-Hārīta VII. 192 prescribes the cutting of the nose, ear and lip for attempt to murder the husband or her foetus. Vide Yāj. II. 278-279 for the sentence of death in the case of women for certain offences.

It has been seen how women gradually lost the privilege of upanayana, of studying the Veda, of having all the saṃskāras performed with Vedic mantras and how they came to be regarded as entirely dependent on men. Their position became assimilated to that of the śūdras¹³⁹² in many matters. A few examples will be cited here. All dvijātis were to sip water thrice (ācamana) for purifying their body, but women and śūdras were to sip water only once for that purpose (Manu V. 139, Yāj. I. 21). The dvijātis were¹³⁹³ to take their bath to the accompaniment of Vedic mantras, while women and śūdras were to bathe silently. Śūdras and women were to perform what is called āmaśrāddha (i. e. śrāddha without cooked food).¹³⁹⁴ The same penance was prescribed for killing a śūdra or a woman (Baud. Dh. S. II. 1. 11-12, Parāśara VI. 16). Ordinarily women, children and very old men could not be witnesses (Yāj.

1391. अवध्या स्त्रिय इत्याहुर्धर्मज्ञा धर्मनिश्चये । आदिपर्व 158. 31 ; स्त्रीषु गोषु न शस्त्राणि पातयेद् ब्राह्मणेणु च । यस्य चास्त्रानि भुञ्जीत यत्र च स्यात्प्रतिश्रयः ॥ सभापर्व 41. 13.

1392. 'स्त्रीशूद्राश्च सधर्मणः' इति वाक्यात् व्यव. म. p. 112; द्विजस्त्रीणामपि श्रौतज्ञानाभ्यासेऽधिकारिता । वदन्ति केचिद्विद्वांसः स्त्रीणां शूद्रसमानताम् । सूतसंहिता quoted in शूद्रकमलाकर p. 221.

1393. ब्रह्मक्षत्रविशां चैव मन्त्रवत्स्तनमिष्यते । तूष्णीमेव हि शूद्रस्य स्त्रीणां च कुरु-नन्दन ॥ विष्णु quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 181.

1394. स्त्रीशूद्रः श्वपचश्चैव जातकर्मणि चाप्यथ । आमश्राद्धं तथा कुर्याद्विधिना पार्वणेन तु ॥ प्रचेतस् quoted in स्मृतिच. (आद्ध.) pp. 491-92.

II. 70, Nārada, ṛṇādāna, vv. 178, 190, 191), but Manu VIII. 68, 70, Yāj. II. 72, and Nārada, ṛṇādāna 155 allowed women to be witnesses in disputes between women or when no other witness could be had or in the cases of theft, adultery and other offences in which force was an element. Documents taken from or transactions (particularly gift, sale and mortgage of lands or houses) made with women were ordinarily to be treated as voidable like those brought about by force or fraud (vide Nārada, ṛṇādāna 26, 137, Yāj. II. 31). But this instead of being regarded as a disability was rather a boon owing to the general illiteracy of women. The Tristhalisetu (of Nārāyaṇa) quotes a passage of the Br̥han-Nāradiya purāṇa to the effect that women, those whose upanayana has not been performed and śūdras have no right to establish the images of Viṣṇu or Śiva. ¹³⁹⁵

If there were many and heavy disabilities on women in certain matters, they enjoyed in certain directions more privileges than men. It has been already seen that women were not to be killed nor were they to be abandoned even when guilty of adultery. They also enjoyed the right of precedence on the road (vide p. 146 above). The daughter ¹³⁹⁶ of a *patita* was not regarded as *patita*, though the son of a *patita* was regarded as *patita* (vide Vas. 13. 51-53, Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 13. 4, Yāj. III. 261). Women ¹³⁹⁷ had to undergo only half of the *prāyaścitta* that men had to undergo for the same lapse (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 54. 33, Devala 30, &c). Women received ¹³⁹⁸ honour according to the ages of their husbands, whatever their own ages may be (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 18). Just as br̥hmanas learned in the Vedas were to be free from taxes, the women of all varṇas (except those of *pratiloma* castes) had to pay no taxes, ¹³⁹⁹ according to Āp. Dh.

1395. स्त्रीणामनुपनीतानां शूद्राणां च नरेश्वर । स्थापने नाधिकारोऽस्ति विष्णोर्वा शंकरस्य च । इति बृहज्जारदीये (quoted in शुद्धकमलाकर p. 32).

1396. पतितेनोत्पन्नः पतितो भवतीत्याहुर्न्यत्र स्त्रियाः । सा हि परगामिनी । तामरि-
कथाशुषेयात् । वसिष्ठ 13. 51-53 ; कन्यां समुद्रहेदेयां सोपवासामर्किकनाम् । या. III. 261.
The *mita* on ya. III. 261 quotes Vas. and a passage from हारीतयर्महन्त्र to the same effect.

1397. प्रायश्चित्तार्धमर्हन्ति स्त्रियो रोगिण एव च । विष्णु 54. 33, देवल 30, quoted in *mita* on ya. III. 293 ; बालवृद्धस्त्रीणामर्धप्रायश्चित्तम् । च्यवन quoted by अपरार्क p. 1199.

1398. पतिवयसः स्त्रियः । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 14. 18.

1399. अकरः श्रोत्रियः । सर्ववर्णानां च स्त्रियः । आप. ध. सू. II. 10. 26. 10-11 ; अकरः श्रोत्रियो राजपुमाननाथप्रजितबालवृद्धतरुणप्रजाताः । वसिष्ठ 19. 23.

S. II. 10. 26. 10-11). Vas. Dh. S. 19. 23 limits this exemption to women who are young or just delivered of a child. Pregnant women from the third month of pregnancy, forest hermits, samnyāsins and brāhmanas and brahmacārins had to pay no tax at a ferry (Manu VIII. 407 and Viṣṇu V. 132). According to Gaut. V. 23 and Yāj. I. 105 children, the daughters and sisters who are married and yet stay with their parents or brothers, pregnant women, unmarried daughters, guests and servants are to be fed before the master and mistress of the house; while Manu III. 114 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 67. 39 go a step further and say that freshly married girls of the family, unmarried girls, pregnant women are to be fed even before guests. A judicial proceeding in which a woman was a party, or which was heard at night or outside the village or inside a house (i. e. not in public) or before enemies was liable to be reviewed (Nārada ¹⁴⁰⁰ I. 43). Ordinarily trial by ordeal did not apply to a woman, whether she was plaintiff or defendant, but if at all a woman had to prove her case by ordeal, only the ordeal of *tulā* (balance) was prescribed for her (Yāj. II. 98 and Mit. thereon). In succession to *strīdhana* property, daughters were preferred to sons. Women did not lose their *strīdhana* by adverse possession (Yāj. II. 25, Nārada, ṛṇādāna 82-83). Women were always to be consulted about *ācāra*. Āp. Dh. S. II. 11. 29. 15 cites the view that rules not stated in the sūtra are, according to some teachers, to be understood from women and from men of all castes. Āp. gr. II. 15 prescribes that in marriage the usages to be followed are to be learnt from women. Vide also Āśv. gr. I. 14. 8, Manu II. 223, Vaik. III. 21. ¹⁴⁰¹

One interesting question is whether the practice of *purda* now in vogue among Moslems and also among Hindus in certain provinces of India prevailed in ancient times. Rg. X. 85. 33 (used in the marriage rite) expressly calls upon people to look at the bride. ' This bride is endowed with great auspiciousness; assemble together and see her; having given her blessings of good luck you may go to your house '. The Āśv. gr. I. 8. 7 prescribes that at each halting place when the bride-groom is returning to his village with his bride he should

1400. स्त्रीषु राज्ञो बहिर्ग्रामादन्तर्वेष्टमन्यरातिषु । व्यवहारः कुलोप्येष पुनः कर्तव्यता-
सियात् ॥ नारद I. 43.

1401. वेदस्मृतकस्य यदङ्गि विवाहो भवति मासिके वार्षिके चाङ्गि तस्मिन् यत् स्त्रिय
आहुः पारंपर्यागतं शिक्षाचारं वत्तत्कराति । वैखानसस्मार्त III. 21.

look at the spectators with the verse Rg. X. 85. 33.¹⁴⁰² This shows that no veil was worn by the bride and she appeared in public without one. Though in the marriage hymn there is a blessing (Rg. X. 85. 46) that the bride was to dominate over her father-in-law, mother-in-law, sister-in-law and brother-in-law, it appears that that was only a blessing and the heart's wish, but the reality was somewhat different. The Ait. Br.¹⁴⁰³ (12. 11) says that the daughter-in-law is abashed in the presence of the father-in-law and goes away concealing herself from him. This indicates that there was some restraint for younger women when they were in the presence of elders. But in the grhya and dharma sūtras there is no reference to any veil for women when moving in public. Pāṇini III. 2. 36 teaches the formation of 'asūryampaśyā' (who do not see the sun) applied to queens. That only shows that royal ladies did not leave the precincts of the palace and come under public gaze. In the Ayodhyā-kāṇḍa¹⁴⁰⁴ (33. 8) it is said 'people walking on the public road see to-day Sītā who could not formerly be seen even by aerial beings'. Similarly it is stated in the same kāṇḍa (116. 28) 'the appearance of a woman in public is not blamable in misfortunes, difficulties, in wars, in svayamvara, in a sacrifice, and in a marriage'. In the Sabhāparva¹⁴⁰⁵ 69. 9 Draupadī exclaims 'we have heard that ancient people did not take married women to the public assembly-hall; that ancient and long-standing practice has been contravened by the Kauravas'. She says this after referring to the fact that, since she was seen at her svayamvara by the kings, she was never seen again by them till the day she

1402. सुमङ्गलिरियं वधूरिमां समेत पश्यत। सौभाग्यमस्यै दत्त्वावाधास्तं विपरेतन॥ ऋ. X. 85. 33. This occurs in आप. न. पा. I. 9. 5. and is prescribed in आप. गृ. 6. 11 for japa after a boy is seated on the bride's lap. In Kāthaka gr. 25. 46 the verse 'sumangalir-iyam' is to be repeated when the bride sees the polestar and Arundhatī and is addressed to these latter. In Hir. Gr. I. 19. 4 this verse is repeated by the bridegroom when the bride is brought to him before the fire, which is about to be kindled.

1403. तद्यथैवाद्ः स्तुषा श्वशुराहज्जमाना निलीयमानैत्येवमेव सा सेना भज्यमाना निलीयमानेति। ऐ. ब्रा. 12. 11.

1404. या न शक्या पुरा द्रष्टुं धृतैराकाशगैरपि। तामद्य सीतां पश्यन्ति राजमार्गगता जनाः॥ युद्धकाण्ड 33. 8; व्यसनेषु न हृच्छ्रेषु न युद्धेषु स्वयंवरे। न क्रतौ नो विवाहे वा दर्शनं दृश्यते स्त्रियः॥ युद्धकाण्ड 116. 28.

1405. धर्म्यां स्त्रियं सभां पूर्वं न नयन्तीति नः श्रुतम्। स नष्टः कौरवेयेषु पूर्वो धर्मः सनातनः॥ सभापर्व 69. 9.

was brought to the assembly-hall when Yudhiṣṭhira gambled and lost everything. This shows that women, particularly high-born ladies, did not appear in public except on certain occasions, but it does not follow that they always wore the veil. When the Kauravas were routed the Śalyaparva (29. 74) laments that their ladies whom even the sun did not see in their palaces were seen by the common people who had come to the capital. *Vide* also Sabhāparva 97. 4-7, Śalyaparva 19. 63, Striparva 9. 9-10, Āśrama-vāsi-parva 15. 13. In the Harṣacarita (IV) princess Rājyaśrī, whom the intended bride-groom Grahavarmā came to see just before marriage, is described as having her face covered with a veil of fine red cloth. In another place, while describing the country of Sthānviśvara (modern Thanesar) Bāṇa says ' where bees drawn by the fragrance of the breaths of the ladies (and hovering round their faces) served as a charming veil for their faces and the veil actually worn by them became a mere redundancy worn because it was the practice of high-born ladies to wear one '. In the Kādambarī also (para 99) Bāṇa describes Patralekhā as covering her face with a veil of red cloth. In the Śākuntalā¹⁴⁰⁶ when Śākuntalā is taken to the court of Duṣyanta she is described as wearing a veil. So it must be conceded that ladies of high rank did not appear in public without a veil, but ordinarily women did not wear any veil. It is probably after the advent of the Moslems that the wearing of a veil, which was not quite unknown, became general among Hindu women in Northern and Eastern India. *Vide* Indian Antiquary for 1933 p. 15, where a passage is quoted from the Sāṅkhyatattva-kaumudī of Vācaspati (9th century A. D.) referring to ladies of good family not appearing in public without a veil and Pathak Commemoration vol. p. 72 for references from Buddhist works about the practice of *purda*.

1406. तत्र...अरुणांशुकावशुण्ठितमुखीं...वधूमपश्यत् । हर्षचरित IV, 4th para from end; 'यच्च च...निःश्वासाकृष्टमधुकरकुलान्वेव रमणीयं सुखावरणं कुलस्त्रजिनाचारो जालिका । हर्षचरित III p. 44 of my edition; vide a similar conceit in 'विकचनयनकुवलयकुतूहलालीनयालिकुलसंहत्या नीलांशुकजालिकयेव निरुद्धार्धवदना । हर्षचरित I. p. 15 of my edition; 'शक्रगोपकालोहितरागेणांशुकेन रचितावशुण्ठनया...कन्यकया &c.' कादम्बरी, पूर्वभाग para 99; कास्विदवशुण्ठनवती नातिपरिस्फुटशरीरलावण्या । शाकुन्तल V. 13.

CHAPTER XIII

NIYOGA

Niyoga—(appointment of a wife or widow to procreate a son from intercourse with an appointed male).

Great divergence of views prevails about the origin and purpose of this practice. It will be best first to begin by examining the most ancient smrtis that permitted this practice. Gaut.¹⁴⁰⁷ 18. 4-14 have great bearing on this point. Gaut. 18. 4-8 are: 'a woman whose husband is dead and who desires offspring may secure a son from her brother-in-law. She should obtain the permission of the elders¹⁴⁰⁸ and have intercourse only during the menstrual period (excluding the first four days). She may obtain a son from a sapinda, a sagotra, a sapravara or one who belongs to the same caste (when there is no brother-in-law). Some (hold that this practice is allowed) with nobody except a brother-in-law. She shall not bear more than two sons (by this practice)'. Gaut. 18. 11 says that a child begotten at the request of a living husband on his wife belongs to the husband. Gaut. (28. 32) says that such a son is called *kṣetrāja*. The wife is called *kṣetra*¹⁴⁰⁹ (field), the husband of the wife or widow is called *kṣetrin* or *kṣetrika* (to whom the wife or widow belongs) and the person appointed to produce offspring is called *bījin* (one who sows the seed) or *niyogin* (Vas. 17. 64, one who is appointed).

1407. अपतिरपत्यलिप्सुर्देवरात् । गुरुप्रसूता नर्तुमतीयात् । पिण्डगोत्रार्णिसंबन्धेभ्यो योनिमात्राद्वा । नदेवरादित्येके । नातिद्वितीयम् । गौतम 18. 4-8. हरदत्त explains नातिद्वितीयम् differently 'प्रथममपत्यमतीत्य द्वितीयं न जनयेदिति' (i. e. not more than one son is to be so procreated).

1408. The word गुरु means only the relatives of the husband and not the father of the widow 'गुरुश्च स्वश्वशुरदेवरादयो भर्तृसगोत्रा दृष्टव्या न पित्रा-दयः' मेधा० on मनु IX. 59. हरदत्त differs and explains गौतम 18. 5 as 'गुरुभिः पतिपक्षैः पितृपक्षैर्वा नियुक्ता सती संयुज्येत'. Manu (IX. 60-61) shows that some said that only one son could be had by *niyoga*, while others held that two could be had.

1409. Vide मनु IX. 32, 33 and 53 for the words क्षेत्र, क्षेत्रिक, बीजिन; गौतम 18. 11 and Ap. Dh. S. II. 6. 13. 6 employ the word क्षेत्र for wife and Gaut. IV. 3 has the word 'bījin'.

The Vas. Dh. S. (17. 56-65) similarly prescribes ¹⁴¹⁰ 'the father or brother of the widow (or widow's husband) shall assemble the *gurus* who taught or sacrificed for the deceased husband and his relatives and shall appoint her (to raise issue for the deceased husband). Let him not appoint a widow who is mad, not master of herself (through grief &c.) or is diseased or is very old. (Up to) sixteen years (after puberty is the period for appointing a widow) nor shall an appointment be made if the person who is to approach her is sickly. Let him approach the widow in the *muhūrta* sacred ¹⁴¹¹ to Prajāpati like a husband, without dallying with her and without abusing or ill-treating her. No appointment shall be made through a desire to obtain ¹⁴¹² the estate.' Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 17 (S. B. E. vol. 14, p. 226) defines a *kṣetraja* son as one who is begotten by another man after permission on the wife of a deceased person or of a eunuch or of one who is suffering from (an incurable disease). Manu (IX. 59-61) says that a widow who is properly appointed may obtain offspring, in case there is total failure of issue, from her brother-in-law or a sapinda of her husband, that the person appointed should approach her in the dark and should be anointed with ghee and should procreate only one son and never two, while some say that he may procreate two. Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 68-70, Yāj. I. 68-69 and Nārada (*śrīpumsa*, 80-83) lay down similar rules. Kauṭilya (I. 17, p. 35) says that a king who is old or suffering from (incurable) disease should procreate a son on his queen through a *mātrbandhu* or a feudatory chief endowed with qualities similar to his. In another place he says that if a brāhmaṇa dies without leaving a near heir, then a *sagotra* or *mātrbandhu*

1410. ऊर्ध्वं विद्याकर्मशुद्धयोनिस्वन्धान्तं निपात्य पिता भ्राता वा नियोगं कारयेत् । न सोन्मादामवशां व्याधितां वा निमुञ्चयत् । ज्यायसीमपि । षोडश वर्षाणि । न चेदमयावी स्यात् । प्राजापत्ये सुहृते पाणिग्राहचतुपचरेदन्यत्र संप्रदाये वाकूपारुष्यदण्डपारुष्याच्च रिक्थलोभाज्जास्ति नियोगः । वसिष्ठ 17. 56-61, 65.

1411. प्राजापत्य सुहृते is the same as ब्राह्म सुहृते viz. the last watch of the night (i. e. $\frac{1}{4}$ hrs of an hour before sunrise). Vide वसिष्ठ 12. 47, मनु 4. 92.

1412. The idea is that the widow must not be moved to the act by a mercenary motive. According to धारेश्वर whose views are cited in the वीरमित्रोदय of मित्रमिश्र (p. 633) the widow of a separated sonless man could get the property of her husband only if she submitted to *niyoga*, otherwise she was to get only maintenance. Dhāreśvara apparently based his view on some ancient texts. Vas. in the last sentence negatives such

may be appointed to procreate a *ksetraja* son, who should get the inheritance.¹⁴¹³ The conditions necessary to allow *niyoga* were: (1) the husband, whether living or dead, must have no son; (2) the *gurus* in a family council should decide to appoint the widow to raise issue for the husband; (3) the person appointed must be either the husband's brother, or a *sapiṇḍa* or *sagotra* of the husband or (according to Gautama, a *sapṛavara* or a person of the same caste); (4) the person appointed and the widow must be actuated by no lust but only by a sense of duty; (5) the person appointed must be anointed with ghee or oil (Nārada,¹⁴¹⁴ *śrīpūrṇa*, 82), must not speak with or kiss her or engage in sportive dalliance with the woman; (6) this relationship was to last till one son was born (or two according to some); (7) the widow must be comparatively young, she should not be old or sterile or past child-bearing or sickly or unwilling or pregnant (Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 70, Nārada, *śrīpūrṇa* 83-84); (8) after the birth of a son they were to regard themselves as father-in-law and daughter-in-law (Manu IX. 62). It is further made clear by the texts that if a brother-in-law has intercourse with his sister-in-law without appointment by elders or if he does so even when appointed by elders but the other circumstances do not exist (e. g. if the husband has a son), he would be guilty of the sin of incest (vide Manu IX. 58, 63, 143, 144 and Nārada, *śrīpūrṇa* 85-86) and a son, born of such intercourse, would be a bastard and not entitled to any wealth (Nārada, *śrīpūrṇa* 84-85) and that he would¹⁴¹⁵ belong to the begetter (Vas. Dh. S. 17. 63). Nārada says that if a widow or a male acts contrary to the stringent provisions about *niyoga*, he or she should be severely punished by the king or otherwise there would be confusion. Yāj. II. 234 makes such a person liable to be sentenced to a fine of one hundred *panas*. It will be seen from the above that even in the times of the Dharmasūtras, the practice of *niyoga* was hedged round with so many restric-

1413. ब्रह्मस्तु व्याधितो वा राजा मातृवन्धुस्तुल्यगुणवत्सामन्तानामन्यतमेन क्षेत्रे बीज-
स्तुपादयेत् । कौटिल्य (I. 17. p. 35); क्षेत्रे वा जनयेद्दस्य नियुक्तः क्षेत्रजं सुतम् । मातृ-
वन्धुः सगोत्रो वा तस्मै तत्प्रदिशेद्धनम् ॥ कौटिल्य III. 6 (p. 163).

1414. घृतेनाभ्यज्य गात्राणि तैलेनाविकृतेन वा । सुखान्मुखं परिहरन् गात्रैर्गात्राण्य-
संस्पृशन् ॥ नारद (श्रीपुंस्त) verse 82. विश्वरूप on या. I. 68 says घृताभ्यञ्जनवचनं
कामप्रवृत्तिनिरोधार्थम् । ततश्चालिङ्गनादि वैकारिकत्वाद् दूरापेतम् ।

1415. अनियुक्ता तु या नारी देवराजनयेत्सुतम् ॥ जारजातमरिक्थीयं तमाहुर्ब्रह्म-
वादिनः । नारद (श्रीपुंस्त) 84-85.

tions that it must not have been very much prevalent and instances must have been rather rare.

While ancient Dharmaśūtras like Gautama allowed *niyoga*, there were other dharmaśūtras and writers almost as old as Gautama that condemned the practice and forbade it. Āp. Dh. S.¹⁴¹⁶ II. 10. 27. 5-7 after referring to the view of some that a girl is given to a family in marriage and declaring that that practice (of polyandry) is forbidden adds a condemnation of *niyoga* 'the hand (of a *sagotra* is considered to be) that of a stranger; that if (the marriage vow) is transgressed, both (husband and wife) certainly go to hell and that the reward obtained from observing the restrictions of the law is preferable to offspring obtained in this manner (by *niyoga*).' Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 38 refers¹⁴¹⁷ to the view of Āpajāṅghani that it is only the *aurasa* son that is to be recognized as a son and then quotes three verses (probably of the same ancient sage), which are also cited as quotations by Āp. Dh. S. (II. 6. 13. 6) and which call upon husbands to guard their wives and not allow others to procreate sons on the latter, as the sons so procreated will benefit only the begetter. Manu, though at first he describes *niyoga*, ultimately condemns it in the strongest terms possible (IX. 64-68). He says that among *dvi-jātis* a widow should never be appointed to raise issue from another, for by doing so ancient dharma would be violated, that in the mantras relating to marriage there is no reference to *niyoga* nor is the remarriage of a widow spoken of in the procedure about marriage, that *niyoga* is a beastly way and was first brought into vogue by king Vena who thereby caused *varṇa-saṁkara*, and that since that time good men condemn him who through ignorance appoints a widow to produce offspring. Manu (IX. 69-70) explains the meaning of *niyoga* by saying that the rules and the ancient texts about *niyoga* apply or refer to that case only where, after a girl is promised as a bride, the intended bridegroom dies, the

1416. अविशिष्टं हि परतः पाणेः । तद्व्यतिक्रमे खलु पुनरुभयोर्नरकः । नियमारम्भणो हि वर्षीयानश्चुदय एवमारम्भणादपत्यात् । आप. ध. सू. II. 10. 27. 5-7.

1417. An औपजन्धनि or-हूनि is a teacher mentioned in the वंश at the end of Br. Up. II. 6 and IV. 6. इदानीमहमीष्यामि स्त्रीणां जनक नो दुरा । यतो यमस्य सादने जनयितुः पुत्रमनुवन् ॥ रेतोधाः पुत्रं नयति परेत्य यमसादने । तस्माद्धार्यं रक्षन्ति विभ्यतः पररेततः ॥ अपमत्ता रक्षय तन्तुमेतं मा वः क्षेत्रे परवीजानि बाण्डुः । जनयितुः पुत्रो भवति सांपराये मोघं वेत्ता कुरुते तन्तुमेतम् ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 2. 39-41 = आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 13. 6 (with slight variations). सत्स्यपुराण 49. 13 has the half verse रेतोधां नयते पुत्रः परेतं यमसादनात् । The last verse occurs in Vas. 17. 9 also.

brother of the latter is called upon to marry the girl and to have intercourse with her only once during each period till she gives birth to a son who would be the son of the deceased. Though Manu condemned the ancient practice of *niyoga*, he had to make provision for the *kṣetrajā* son as regards partition (IX. 120-121, 145). It should be noticed that if the interpretation of Manu IX. 69-70 be accepted, the word 'vidhavā' would have to be taken in two different senses in Manu and other texts e. g. in IX. 60 where Manu speaks of *niyoga*, the word means a girl promised to a bridegroom who died before the marriage ceremony was gone through, while in Manu IX. 64 'vidhavā' means 'a widow whose husband died after marriage was completed.' To say the least, this contravenes the canon of *Mīmāṃsā* interpretation that the same word in the same passage or context should have only one meaning. *Bṛhaspati*¹⁴¹⁸ refers to the fact that the *Manusmṛti* first described the ancient *niyoga* and then forbade it and adds that in former ages men possessed *tapas* and knowledge and could strictly carry out the rules while in *dvāpara* and *kali* ages there is great deterioration of power and so men of these times cannot now practise *niyoga*. The several kinds of sons will be dealt with under *vyavahāra*.

The *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* (15.3) contains an innovation which is not found in the *sūtras* of *Gautama* and *Vasiṣṭha* viz, the '*kṣetrajā* is one'¹⁴¹⁹ who is procreated on an appointed wife or widow by a *sapinda* of the husband or by a *brāhmaṇa*.' The *Mahābhārata* is replete with cases of *niyoga*. *Ādiparva* (95 and 103) narrates how *Satyavatī* pressed *Bhīṣma* to procreate sons for his younger brother *Vicitravīrya* (who was dead) from his queens and how (Ādi. 105) when *Bhīṣma* refused *Vyāsa* ultimately was appointed by *Vyāsa*'s mother *Satyavatī* and procreated *Dhṛtarāṣṭra* and *Pāṇḍu*. *Kumārila* *bhaṭṭa*¹⁴²⁰ replies to

1418. उक्तो नियोगो मुनिना निषिद्धः स्वयमेव तु । युगक्रमादशक्योयं कर्तुमन्यैर्विधानतः ॥ तपोज्ञानसमायुक्ताः कृतचेतायुगे नराः । द्वापरे च कालो नृणां शक्तिहानिर्विनिर्मिता ॥ अनेकधाः कृताः पुत्रा ऋषिभिश्च पुरातनैः । न शक्यन्तेऽष्टुक्ता कर्तुं शक्तिहीनैरिदन्तनैः ॥ बृह० quoted by अपरार्क p. 97 (on Yāj. I. 68-69) and by कुल्लुक on मनु IX. 68.

1419. नियुक्तायां सपिण्डेनोत्तमवर्णेन कोत्पादितः क्षेत्रजो द्वितीयः । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र I5. 3.

1420. The objector says 'कुष्णद्वैपायनस्य गृहीतनैष्ठिकब्रह्मचर्यस्य विचित्रवीर्य-दरेण्वपत्योत्पादनमसङ्गः' (तन्त्रवातिक p. 203 on जै. I. 3. 7) and the reply is 'द्वैपायनस्यापि शुरुनियोगादुपतिरपत्यलिप्सुर्देवरादृशमेरितादृशमतीयात् इत्येवमागमान्मातृ-संबन्धश्चातृजायापुत्रजननं प्राकृतपश्चात्करिष्यमाणतपोबलेन नातिदुष्करम् । अन्यापि यस्तादृक्तपोबलो निर्वहेत्स कुर्यादेव । तन्त्रवातिक p. 208 (on the same sūtra).

the objector finding fault with Vyāsa by saying that Vyāsa followed Gaut. (18. 4-5) and the urgent request of his mother and besides his *tapas* saved him from the effects of violation of dharma. Pāṇḍu himself is said to have asked Kuntī to procreate sons for him by *niyoga* from a brāhmaṇa endowed with great *tapas* (Ādi. 120) and tells her certain stories of *niyoga* (Ādi. 120-123) and winds up by saying that three sons is ¹⁴²¹ the limit and that if a fourth or a fifth were procreated the woman would be *svairinī* (a wanton woman) and *bandhaki* (harlot). Ādiparva (chap. 64 and 104) states that when Paraśurāma tried to exterminate the kṣatriyas thousands of kṣatriya widows approached brāhmaṇas for the procreation of sons. ¹⁴²² Vide Ādiparva, chap. 104 and 177, Anuśāsana, chap. 44. 52-53, Śānti 72. 12 for other references and examples of *niyoga*. ¹⁴²³

Owing to the bewildering and often conflicting rules about *niyoga* in the *smṛtis*, commentators like Viśvarūpa, Medhātithi, who wrote at a time when *niyoga* was almost unheard of, made heroic though unsatisfactory efforts to bring order out of chaos. Viśvarūpa on Yāj. I. 69 states several views on the point. The first is that *niyoga* is bad in the present age as opposed to *smṛti* texts (like Manu IX. 64 and 68) and to the usage of the *śiṣṭas* (respectable people). The second view was the same as Manu IX. 69 set out above. A third view was that there was an option (as *niyoga* was both forbidden and allowed). A fourth view (which seems to be the view of Viśvarūpa himself) was that the *smṛti* texts about *niyoga* refer to *śūdras* ¹⁴²⁴ (Manu IX. 64 uses the word 'dvijāti') and it was also allowed to royal families, when there was no male to succeed (and only a brāhmaṇa was to be appointed) and Viśvarūpa relies upon two

1421. नातश्चतुर्थं प्रसवमापस्त्वपि वदन्त्युत । अतः परं स्वैरिणी स्याद्बन्धकी पञ्चमे भवेत् ॥ आदिपर्व 123. 77.

1422. ब्राह्मणान् क्षत्रिया राजान् सुतार्थिन्योऽभिचक्रयुः । कृतान्वृतौ नरस्यात्र न कामान्नाद्युतौ तथा ॥ तेभ्यश्च लेभिरे गर्भं क्षत्रियास्ताः सहस्रशः । आदिपर्व 64. 5-7 ; एवमन्वे महेश्वासा ब्राह्मणैः क्षत्रिया भुवि । जाताः परमधर्मज्ञा वीर्यवन्तो महाबलाः ॥ आदिपर्व 104. 56 ; ब्राह्मणो गुणवान्कश्चिद्धनेनोपनिमन्यताम् । विचित्रवीर्यक्षेत्रेषु यः समुत्पादयेत्पजाः ॥ आदि. 105. 2; पत्यभावे यथैव स्त्री देवरं कुरुते पतिम् । ज्ञान्ति 72. 12.

1423. Vide Dr. Winternitz's paper (Notes on Mahābhārata) in J. R. A. S. 1897 pp. 716-732 'for Niyoga in the great epic'.

1424. एवं तावच्छूद्राणां नियोगाधिकार उक्तः । विश्वरूप at the end of his com. on I. 69. A little above विश्वरूप remarks that there is a usage of *niyoga* among *śūdras*.

verses of Vṛddhamanu¹⁴²⁵ and a gāthā of Vāyu. Viśvarūpa further says that the procreation of sons by Vyāsa from the queens of Vicitravīrya should be paid no heed (i. e. is not to be relied on) like the marriage of Draupadī (to the five Pāṇḍavas). The Mahābhārata probably reflects what happened owing to the incessant internecine wars among the princes of India. Whole princely houses must have been slaughtered. If niyoga was prevalent among them, the males appointed, when they had to be of the same caste, would have been ordinary soldiers (kṣatriyas). The proud princely families very likely thought it below their dignity to associate widowed queens with ordinary kṣatriyas. It is possible to hold that they chose brāhmaṇas for appointment, as the latter were deemed to be higher than even kings in the spiritual domain. It is impossible to believe that brāhmaṇas, who had no temporal power, could coerce the proud and warlike caste into choosing brāhmaṇas for niyoga, unless the teaching of the smṛtis fell in with the notions of the ruling houses themselves to some extent at least.

There was difference of opinion as to whom the child of niyoga belonged. Vas. Dh. S. 17. 6 expressly refers to this divergence. The first view was that the child belonged to the begetter; this view would cut at the very root of the purpose for which niyoga was recommended. Nirukta¹⁴²⁶ III. 1-3 supports this view and relies on Rg. VII. 4. 7-8. Gaut. 18. 9 and Manu IX. 181 state the same rule. Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 13. 5 says that according to a Brāhmaṇa text the son belongs to the begetter. The second view was that if there was an agreement between the elders of a widow and the person appointed or between the husband himself and the begetter that the child should belong to the husband, then the son belonged to the latter. Vide Gaut. 18. 10-11, Vas. 17. 8, Ādiparva 104. 6.¹⁴²⁷ A third view was that the son belonged to both the begetter and the owner of the wife. This is the view of Nārada (striṇmūṣa 58), Yāj. II. 127, Manu IX. 53, Gaut. 18. 13.

1425. तथा च वृद्धमनुः । शृङ्गाणामेव धर्मोऽपत्यौ प्रेतोऽन्यसंश्रयः । लोभान्मूढैर-
विद्वद्भिः क्षत्रियैरपि चर्यते ॥ वायुप्रोक्ता तथा गाथा पठन्त्यत्र मनीषिणः । विप्रानां न
नियोगोस्ति प्रेते पत्यौ न वेदुनम् ॥ and the गाथा is अकार्यमेतद्विप्रानां विधवा यज्ञि-
युज्यते । उह्यते वा सृते पत्यौ देवरेण विशेषतः ॥ विश्वरूपः ।

1426. तद्यथा जनयितुः प्रजा एवमर्थीयि कचाबुदाहरिष्यामः । निरुक्त III. 1.

1427. उत्पादयितुः पुत्र इति हि ब्राह्मणम् । आप. ध. सू. II. 6. 13. 5; पाणिग्राहस्य
तमेव इति वेदेषु निश्चितम् । आदिपर्व 104. 6.

As shown above (in note 1418) niyoga was forbidden in the Kali age by Brhaspati and it was included among practices forbidden in the Kali age by several works. Vide the Mit. on Yāj. II. 117 and Aparārka p. 97 quoting Brahmapurāṇa.^{1427a}

The practice of raising issue from the widow of one's brother or marrying her was a widespread one. Vide Westermarck's 'History of Human Marriage' (1921) vol. III. pp. 207-220. In the Rgveda¹⁴²⁸ X. 40. 2 we read 'what sacrificer invites you (Ásvins) in his house as a widow invites a brother-in-law to her bed or as a young damsel her lover'. But it is not clear whether this refers to marrying the widow of a deceased brother or to the practice of niyoga. Viśvarūpa (on Yāj. I. 69) thinks that this refers to niyoga. The Nirukta (III. 15) explains Rg. X. 40. 2, where in some mss. the word 'devara' is explained as 'a second husband' (dvitīyo varah). Medhātithi on Manu IX. 66 explains Rg. X. 40. 2 as applying to niyoga. According to the sūtras and smṛtis niyoga was entirely different from marriage. In many ancient societies, women were inherited like property. On the death of the eldest brother, his younger brother took the family property as well as his widow. But the Rgveda had reached a stage much beyond that. MacLennan thought that the practice of niyoga was due to polyandry. Westermarck combats this view and rightly so. When niyoga was allowed in the sūtras, polyandry had been either unheard of or forbidden. Jolly in Recht und Sitte (English translation, pp. 156-157) thinks that apart from the religious importance of a son economic motives were at the bottom of the long list of secondary sons, including the *kṣetrajā*. This appears to be quite wrong. The practice of niyoga was a relic from the past and probably owed its origin to several causes, which are now obscure, but one of which was the great hankering for a son evinced by all in Vedic times. Vas. Dh. S. (17. 1-6) lends support to this view, since after quoting Vedic passages about the importance of a son for paying off the debt to ancestors and for securing heavenly worlds, he at once proceeds to the description of the *kṣetrajā*. But the economic motive was never put forward by any of the sages, nor could it possibly have been the reason

1427 a. उक्तं च । यथा नियोगधर्मो नो नाह्वयन्ध्यावधोपि वा । तथोद्धारविभागोपि नैव संप्रति वर्तते ॥ इति । मिता० on या. II. 117 ; क्षीणां पुनर्विवाहस्तु देवराद्युत्संततिः । स्वातन्त्र्यं च कलिद्युगे कर्तव्यं न कदाचन ॥ । ब्रह्मपुराण quoted by अपरार्क p. 97.

1428. को वां शयुना विधत्ते देवरं सर्थं न योषा कृणुते सधस्थ आ. ॥ ऋ. X. 40. 2.

and main-spring of the practice. If many secondary sons were desired for economic reasons, then the same man could have had any number of secondary sons. But the dharmaśāstra texts do not allow this. A man who has an *aurasa* son can have no kṣetraja or adopted son. If one kind of son was adopted, then another kind of son could not be adopted. So economic motives did not at all form the origin of this practice. Winternitz in J. R. A. S. for 1897 at p. 758 puts forward poverty, paucity of women and the joint family system as the causes of niyoga. There are no data to prove that there was paucity of women in India during historic times. There might have been a paucity of men owing to wars. Nor do the other two reasons bear close examination. It is better to say that niyoga was a survival from the remote past, that gradually it became rarer and rarer till in the first centuries of the Christian era it came to be totally prohibited.

CHAPTER XIV

REMARRIAGE OF WIDOWS

Remarriage of widows.—The word *punarbhū* is generally applied to a widow that has remarried. Before going into the detailed history of the remarriage of widows it is desirable to probe into the meaning of the word 'punarbhū'.¹⁴²⁹ Nārada (*stripuṁsa*, v. 45) says that there are seven sorts of wives (mentioned in order) who have been previously married to another man (*parapūrvā*); among them, the *punarbhū* is of three kinds¹⁴³⁰ and the *svairiṇī* (wanton woman) is of four kinds. The three *punarbhūs* are: (1) a maiden whose hand was taken in marriage but whose marriage was not consummated; in her case the marriage ceremony has to be performed once more; (2) a woman who first deserts the husband of her youth, betakes herself to another man and then returns to the house of her husband; (3) a woman who is given by the husband's relatives (when the husband dies) to a *sapinda* of the deceased husband or a person of the same caste, on failure of brothers-in-law (this is *nigoya* and no ceremony is to be performed). The four *svairiṇīs* are: (1) a woman, whether childless or not, who goes to live with another man through love while the husband is alive; (2) a woman who rejects after her husband's death his brothers and the like and unites herself with another through passion for him; (3) a woman, coming from a foreign country or purchased with money or oppressed by hunger or thirst, gives herself to a man saying 'I am yours'; (4) a woman who is given to a stranger by the elders relying on the usages of the

1429. Vide Vedic Index vol. I. pp. 476-478, 'Die Witve in Veda' (the widow in the Veda), a paper by Dr. Winternitz in the Vienna Oriental Journal (1915) vol. 29, pp. 172-203 for discussion of some Vedic passages bearing on the question.

1430. Compare Manu IX. 176 and Viṣṇu 15. 8 for the first *punarbhū*, Manu IX. 176, Vas. Dh. S. 17.19 and Viṣṇu 15. 9 for the second *punarbhū*.

having been given one chance of marriage, if she becomes a widow, that is her ill-luck, but she should not be allowed to compete with unmarried girls in the marriage market, which is already overcrowded with girls waiting to be married.

Certain verses of the R̥gveda and the Atharvaveda have given rise to various explanations and opinion is divided as to whether they refer to *niyoga*, to the remarriage of widows or to the practice of the immolation of widows. First the two verses R̥g. X. 18. 7-8 ¹⁴⁵⁰ which are part of a funeral hymn will be set out: 'Let these women, who are not widows and who have good husbands, sit down with clarified butter used as collyrium; may the wives who are tearless, free from disease and wearing fine jewels (or clothes) occupy the seat in front (first). O woman! raise yourself towards the world of the living; you lie down near this departed (husband); come, this your wifehood of the husband who (formerly) held your hand and who loved you has (now) been fulfilled'. It is somewhat strange that Śāyana understands the latter half as an invitation by the husband's brother to the wife of the departed to remarry him. But that meaning is far-fetched and does not bring out the proper force of 'hastagrābhāsyā', 'patyuh' and 'babhūtha'. The Āśv. gr. ¹⁴⁵¹ (IV. 6. 11-12) prescribes that (in the expiatory rite performed on the death of an elder) the young women relatives should salve their eyes with butter with their thumb and fourth finger and with tender darbha blades and then throw the blades away, when the performer of the rite should look at them while they are salving their eyes with the verse 'imā nārīr &c.'. The same sūtra (IV. 2. 16-18) says that " (when a dead body is to

1450. इमा नारीरविधवाः सुपत्नीराश्रयेन संपिषा सं विशन्तु । अनश्रवोऽनमीवाः सुरता आरोहन्तु जनयो येनिमग्रे ॥ उदीर्ष्व नार्यभि जीवलोकं गतासुमेतद्युष शेष एहि । हस्तयाभस्य द्विषिषोस्तवेदं पत्युर्जनित्वमाभि सं बभूथ ॥ R̥g. X. 18. 7-8. अथर्ववेद (XII. 2. 31 and XVIII. 3. 57) has the verse इमा नारीः, but reads संसृशन्ताम् for संविशन्तु. तै. आ. VI. 10 has the verse इमा नारीः, but reads संसृशन्ताम् and सुशेवाः for संविशन्तु and सुरताः; तै. आ. VI. 1 and अथर्ववेद 18. 3. 2. have उदीर्ष्व etc. but तै. आ. reads इतासुं for गतासुं, त्वमेतत् for तवेदं and बभूव for बभूथ. The most difficult words are the last quarter of R̥g X. 18. 8. बभूथ requires a subject in the 2nd person which does not occur in the latter half of the verse.

1451. इमा नारीरविधवाः सुपत्नीरित्यज्ञाना ईक्षेत । आश्व. य. IV. 6. 12; उत्तरत पत्नीम् । धनुश्च क्षत्रियाय । तासुत्यापयेद्देवरः पतिस्थानीयोऽन्तेवासी जरहासो वोदीर्ष्व नार्यभि जीवलोकमिति । आश्व. य. IV. 2. 16.-18. These sūtras are referred to by अपराकं p. 112. The com. on Tai. Ār. holds that the latter half calls upon the wife of the deceased to remarry.

be cremated) they should place the wife to the north of the body and a bow for a kṣatriya (if he be the dead person) and then her brother-in-law or some one else who can be the representative of her husband or a pupil or an old servant should make her rise up with the mantra 'udīrṣva' ". The Śān. Śr. S. IV. 16. 16 also directs that the verse Rg. X. 18. 7 is repeated when the eyes of women are touched with blades of kuśa grass and XVI 13. 13 says that Rg. X. 18. 8 and Rg. X. 85. 21-22 are called 'utthāpinyah' (verses addressed for making one rise). There is another mantra in the Atharvaveda (18. 3. 1) and Tai. Ār. VI. 1 ¹⁴⁵² 'Oh (dead) man ! this woman choosing the world of the husband lies down by thee, the deceased, observing the old universal custom ; bestow on her in this world offspring and wealth '. The first verse (i. e. Rg. X. 18. 7) contains nothing about niyoga or remarriage. It has been made use of for giving Vedic authority to the practice of *sati* (which will be dealt with later on). That verse refers to the practice that young women of the household of the departed used to go to the cemetery and applied clarified butter to their eyes (by way of purification and *śānti*); this practice continued to the days of the Āśv. gr., the Brhad-devatā (VII 12) and the Baud. pitṛmedhasūtra (I.21.11). The two verses 'iyam nārī' and Rg. X. 18. 8 are employed by the Baudhāyana-Pitṛmedhasūtra ¹⁴⁵³ in the funeral rites, the first to be repeated when the wife is made to sit near the corpse and the next for making her rise. It is to be noted that Baud. directs that the corpse is placed on the funeral pile after the wife is made to rise from the vicinity of the corpse ; while the Brhad-devatā appears to suggest that the wife ascends the funeral pile after the corpse is placed thereon and then the younger brother forbids her with the verse 'udīrṣva &c.'. But the Brhad-devatā ¹⁴⁵⁴ does not mean that the wife burns herself on the funeral pyre and the brother-in-law contents himself with only repeating a verse to dissuade her. The Rgvidhāna ¹⁴⁵⁵ (III.8.4) says that the brother-in-law should call back the wife

1452. इयं नारी पतिलोकं वृणाना निपद्यत उप त्वा मर्त्यं प्रेतम् । विश्वं पुराणमनु
पालयन्ती तस्यै प्रजां द्रविर्गं वेह वेहि ॥ तै. आ. VI. 1; अथास्य भार्यामुपसंवेक्षयति । इयं नारी
.....वेहि इति । तां प्रति हितः सव्ये पाणावभिप्राद्योत्थापयति उदीर्ष्व...बधुव इति । बौ.
पितृमेधसूत्र I. 8. 1-2.

1453. अथैनमेतयासन्ध्या सह चितायामावृणोति । बौ. पितृमेधसूत्र I. 8. 7.

1454. उदीर्ष्व नारीत्यनया मृतं पत्न्यहरोहति । भ्राता कनीयान् प्रेतस्य निगद्य
प्रतिषेधति ॥ बृहदेवता VII. 13.

1455. भ्रातृभार्यामपुत्रस्य संतानार्थं मृते पतौ । देवरोऽन्वारकृन्तीहृदोर्ध्वेति विच-
र्तयेत् ॥ ऋग्विधान III. 8. 4 (ed. by Meyer).

of his sonless brother when she is about to ascend the funeral pyre for procreating a son on her with Rg. X. 18. 8. It appears that the verse Rg. X. 18. 8 symbolically describes what even in the days of the Rgveda was probably only a tradition viz. that in hoary antiquity a wife burnt herself with her husband. In the times of the Rgveda this practice had altogether ceased, but a symbolical imitation of it had come into vogue, viz. that the wife lay near the corpse in the cemetery and then she was asked to get up and was told that by following her husband to the very doors of death she had fulfilled all that was expected of her and that she should return. The same idea is referred to by the verse 'iyam nārī', but the latter half appears to refer to the practice of niyoga when it calls upon the departed to bestow on the wife offspring and wealth. It is possible to argue that Rg. X. 18. 8 also impliedly has niyoga in view. But both these verses do not expressly refer to the practice of *sati* at all. They at the most might lead to the inference that the woman had either to marry the deceased husband's brother or go in for niyoga because the husband died sonless. The latter appears to me to be the more probable of the two hypotheses, if those are the only explanations. The symbolic use made in the *grhyasūtras* and in the *Brhad-devatā* of Rg. X. 18. 8 shows that they practically are against the burning of widows. It is probable that these authors knew of the custom of niyoga, that it was not then much approved of and so they are silent about it, while the *Rgvidhāna* which appears to be comparatively a late work takes the verse 'udīrṣva' as referring to niyoga (which is most probably referred to in Rg. X. 40. 2 *ko vām śayutrā vidhaveva devaram*). The consideration of the practice of widow burning naturally arises here from the above discussion and will be dealt with in a separate chapter.

Divorce

In the Vedic literature there are at least some texts capable of being interpreted as relating to the remarriage of widows and we have the word 'punarbhū'. But as regards divorce there is absolutely nothing in the Vedic texts nor is there much in post-vedic literature. The theory of *dharmaśāstra* writers is that marriage when completed by *homa* and *saptapadi* is indissoluble. *Manu* IX. 101 says 'Let mutual fidelity (between husband and wife) continue till death; this in brief may be understood to be the highest *dharma* of man and wife.' In another place *Manu* (IX. 46) declares 'neither by sale nor by

desertion is the wife released from the husband; we understand that this is the law ordained by the Creator in former times.' The position of the writers on dharmasāstra is that marriage is a *saṁskāra*, that the status of wife-hood arises from that *saṁskāra*, that even if the husband or wife became *patita*, the *saṁskāra* already performed is not annulled by that fact, that even if a wife committed adultery she still remains a wife and that when she performs a penance for her lapse, it is not necessary to have a fresh *saṁskāra* of marriage performed on her.¹⁴⁵⁶ We have seen (pp. 552-553) that a man was allowed to supersede a wife and marry another or others or to abandon his wife altogether in certain circumstances. But that does not amount to divorce (i. e. dissolution of the marriage tie); the marriage is still there intact. It was also shown (at pp. 610-611) that according to Nārada, Parāśara and a few others a woman was allowed to remarry in case the husband died, or was unheard of &c.; but according to the digests and commentaries these rules apply to a former *yuga* (age). Therefore divorce in the ordinary sense of the word (i. e. divorce *a vinculo matrimonii*) has been unknown to the dharmasāstras and to Hindu society for about two thousand years (except on the ground of custom among the lower castes). Even when the husband was allowed to abandon the wife for her lapse, still she was in most cases entitled to at least starving maintenance. Therefore *tyāga* (abandonment) was not only no divorce *a vinculo* at all but was not even a divorce *a mensa et thero* (divorce from board and bed). Later *smṛtis* and medieval digests could hardly conceive of any ground for which the wife could desert her husband altogether, though Nārada and a few others allowed her to desert one husband and marry another if he was impotent, or became a *saṁnyāsin* or an outcast. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 77 says that a wife is not under the control of her husband as long as he remains *patita* (outcast or excommunicated) and that she should wait till he is purified by penance and restored to caste and that thereafter she again becomes dependent on him. The gravest sins can be expiated by penance (vide Manu XI. 89,

1456. Vide विश्वरूप on या. III. 253-254 केचित्तु परित्यक्तास्तु पारदारप्रायश्चित्तं नेच्छन्ति संबन्धिनिमित्तत्वाद्दारशब्दस्य । तथा च सति विधवास्वपि पारदार्यं न स्यात् । न च व्यभिचारादिभिस्तस्यापगमो युक्तः संस्कारनिमित्तत्वाद् दारशब्दस्य । तस्य च पतनेप्यत्रपगमात् । अत एव पतिता योषितः कृतप्रायश्चित्ताः पुनर्न संस्क्रियन्ते । अन्यथा तु पतनेन संस्कारस्यापगमात् कृतप्रायश्चित्ता अप्यदाराः स्युः । अतो व्यभिचारिणीष्वप्यस्त्येव पारदार्यम् ।

92, 101, 105-106); therefore it follows that a wife could not for ever desert even a *patita* husband. In modern times the Indian courts¹⁴⁵⁷ have held that mere change of faith or apostasy by a Hindu wife or husband does not *ipso facto* dissolve the marriage and that if the wife changes her religion and then marries another while the first husband is still living, she would be guilty of bigamy. Mere desertion or separation for many years or even adultery does not dissolve a Hindu marriage (vide 42 Madras Law Journal 276). Only in cases where the husband or wife becomes a convert to Christianity, a special procedure is prescribed for the dissolution of the original Hindu marriage by the Native Converts' Marriage Dissolution Act (XXI of 1866), which is not set out here as it is beyond the scope of this work to do so. Further, those Hindus who marry under the Special Marriage Act (III of 1872 as amended by Act XXX of 1923) can secure divorce under the Indian Divorce Act (IV of 1869). The Malabar Marriage Act (Madras Act IV of 1896) forbids polygamy if the first marriage is registered and allows divorce (sec. 19) among those who are governed by the Marumakkattayam or Aliyasantana Law prevalent in Malabar.

The Arthasāstra of Kauṭilya contains some interesting observations bearing on divorce.¹⁴⁵⁸ 'A wife hating her husband cannot be released from the husband if he is unwilling (to let her go), nor can the husband release himself from the wife (if she is unwilling); but if there is mutual hatred then release is possible. If a man fearing danger (or injury) from his wife desires release from her, he shall return to her whatever was given to her (at the time of marriage). If a woman out of fear of danger (or injury) from the husband desires release, the latter need not return to her what was given to her (at the time of marriage); marriages in the approved form cannot be dissolved.' Kauṭilya himself says (in III. 2) that the first four forms viz. brāhma, prājāpatya, āṛṣa and daiva are dharmya (approved), since they are brought about under the authority of the father.¹⁴⁵⁹ Therefore according to Kauṭilya there can

1457. Vide *The Government of Bombay v. Ganga* I. L. R. 4. Bom. 330; in the matter of *Ram Kumari* I. L. R. 18 Cal. 264; *Budansa v. Fatma Bi* 26 Madras Law Journal p. 260.

1458. अमोक्षया भर्तृरकामस्य द्विषती भार्या । भार्यायाश्च भर्ता । परस्परं द्वेषान्मोक्षः स्त्रीविप्रकाराद्वा पुरुषश्चेन्मोक्षमिच्छेद्यथागृहीतमस्यै दद्यात् । पुरुषविप्रकाराद्वा स्त्री चेन्मोक्षमिच्छेत्तस्यै यथागृहीतं दद्यात् । अमोक्षो धर्मविवाहानामिति । अर्थशास्त्र III. 3.

1459. पितृप्रमाणान्मोक्षः पूर्वैर्धर्म्याः । अर्थशास्त्र III. 2.

be no dissolution of the marriage tie if the marriage was celebrated in one of the first four forms. But if the marriage was in the gāndharva, āsura or rākṣasa form, then the tie may be dissolved by mutual consent, if both have come to hate each other. But he seems to hold that there can be no release at the instance of only one party to the marriage who has begun to feel aversion to the other party in whatever form the marriage may have been performed. Even in this latter case he apparently makes an exception, where physical danger is apprehended by one party from the other.

It is beyond the scope of this work to compare the law of divorce in other countries or under other religious systems. It may be stated, however, that according to the strict theory of the Roman Catholic Church the marriage tie is indissoluble,¹⁴⁶⁰ though decrees of nullity of marriage were sometimes granted by that Church to those who could pay for them. In England after the Restoration divorce could be secured through the Parliament by a private Bill where a divorce a *vinculo matrimonii* was desired. But this method could be resorted to only by the rich, as the passage of a private Bill for divorce cost at least 500 £. The Ecclesiastical courts in England granted divorces a *mensa et thoro* on the ground of adultery, cruelty or unnatural offences, though such a divorce did not dissolve the marriage. But this procedure also was costly, as even an undefended suit for divorce a *mensa et thoro* would ordinarily cost from 300 to 500 £. Then came the Matrimonial Causes Act of 1857 (20 and 21 Vic. chap. 85) by sec. 27 of which a wife could petition for divorce only if she proved that since the celebration of marriage the husband was guilty of incestuous adultery, or of bigamy with adultery, or of adultery coupled with such cruelty as, without adultery, would have entitled her to a divorce a *mensa et thoro* or of adultery coupled with desertion. The Matrimonial Causes Act of 1923 (13 and 14 Geo. 5 chap. 19) placed women on an equality with men by allowing them to apply for divorce merely on the ground of adultery by the husband without having to prove anything more. Then the Act of 1937 known as A. P. Herbert's Act (1 Edw. 8 and 1 Geo. 6 chap. 57) allows the husband or wife to petition for divorce on four grounds. It will be noticed

1460. Vide the Gospels of Mark X. 2-12 and of Luke XVI. 18, which altogether forbid divorce.

from this that the absence of divorce and rigorous restrictions thereon are not a peculiarity of the Brahmanical religion or of the caste system, but existed even in so-called progressive, casteless and Christian countries up to very recent times. In modern times even in Roman Catholic countries divorce is allowed on various grounds; and in India too efforts are being made to enact legislation permitting divorce among Hindus for various reasons. And it may be admitted that some legal provision is necessary for securing divorce in hard cases even as to marriages celebrated under the ancient *sāstric* system on grounds similar to those in the English Act of 1937.

CHAPTER XV

SATĪ (Self-immolation of widows)

The word is often written as 'suttee' in English works and papers. This subject is now of academic interest in India, since for over a hundred years (i. e. from 1829) self-immolation of widows has been prohibited by law in British India and has been declared to be a crime. A portion of sec. 1 of the Regulation XVII of 1829 passed by the Governor-General Lord William Bentinck is set out below. We are now in a position to take a dispassionate view of the practice, to trace its origin and follow its working down to the date of its being declared illegal. It is not possible in the space available here to go into all details. Those interested may read the latest book on the subject by Mr. Edward Thomson.¹⁴⁶¹ The burning

1461. 'Suttee' (1928), which gives an account of it from the most ancient times, of the efforts made to suppress it by Raja Rama Mohan Roy and the British Government. In an appendix the author gives extracts from the accounts reported by those who witnessed widow burning from 317 B. C. to 1845 A. D. *Vide* also Max Muller's H. A. S. L. p. 48 for references to the custom of widow-burning among Greeks and Scythians; 'Die Frau' pp. 74-79 for accounts of travellers and eye witnesses; Colebrooke's Miscellaneous Essays vol. I (ed. of 1837) pp. 114-116 (for description of the rite), vol. II. chap. III. pp. 153-158; Annals of the Bhandarkar O. R. Institute vol. 14. p. 219. In the 'Travels of Peter Mundy' (1608-1669) published by the Hakluyt Society in 1914 vol. II. pp. 34-36, the author gives an account of the burning of a widow at Surat in 1630 with a sketch showing the widow having on her lap the head of her deceased husband. That writer also notes that the practice had in his time become rare, as under the Mogul rulers a special license from the Ruler or Governor was required. Similarly Barbosa (a Portuguese) describes the burning of a *sati* in the Vijayanagar kingdom (*vide* translation by M. L. Dames, vol. I. pp. 213-216).

Section 1 of Regulation XVII of 1829 which declared the practice of *sati* illegal and a crime punishable in the courts (and passed by the Governor-General in Council on 4th December 1829) is : The practice of Suttee or of burning or burying alive the widows of Hindoos is revolting to the feelings of human nature; it is nowhere enjoined by the religion of the Hindoos as an imperative duty; on the contrary a life of

(Continued on next page)

of widows was not peculiar to Brahmanism, as many are prone to believe, but the custom owes its origin to the oldest religious views and superstitious practices of mankind in general. The practice of widow burning obtained among ancient Greeks, Germans, Slavs and other races (*vide* 'Die Frau' pp. 56, 82-83 and Schrader's 'Prehistoric Antiquities of the Aryan People,' English Translation of 1890, p. 391 and Westermarck's 'Origin and Development of Moral Ideas', 1906, vol. I, pp. 472-476), but was generally confined to the great ones, the princes and nobles.

There is no Vedic passage which can be cited as incontrovertibly referring to widow-burning as then current, nor is there any mantra which could be said to have been repeated in very ancient times¹⁴⁶² at such burning nor do the ancient grhya-sūtras contain any direction prescribing the procedure of widow burning. It therefore appears probable that the practice arose in Brahmanical India a few centuries before Christ. Whether it was indigenous or was copied from some non-Aryan or non-Indian tribes cannot be demonstrated. None of the dharmasūtras

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purity and retirement on the part of the widow is more especially and preferably inculcated and by a vast majority of that people throughout India the practice is not kept up or observed; in some extensive districts it does not exist; in those in which it has been most frequent, it is notorious that, in many instances, acts of atrocity have been perpetrated, which have been shocking to the Hindoos themselves, and in their eyes unlawful and wicked.....Actuated by these considerations the Governor-General in Council, without intending to depart from one of the first and most important principles of the system of British Government in India that all classes of the people be secure in the observance of their religious usages, so long as that system can be adhered to without violation of the paramount dictates of justice and humanity, has deemed it right to establish the following rules &c.

1462. Raja Radhakant Deva relied upon two verses which he found in the Aukhya śākhā of the Tai. S. quoted in the 84th Anuvāka of the Nārāyaṇīya Upaniṣad as the most explicit authority for widow burning; *vide* Prof. H. H. Wilson's Works vol. II, pp. 293-305. The two so-called Vedic texts are: अग्ने व्रतानां व्रतपतिरसि पत्न्यालुगमव्रतं चरिष्यामि तच्छक्रेयं तन्मे राक्ष्यताम् । इह त्वा अग्ने नमस्ता विधेम सुवर्गस्य लोकस्य समेत्यै । जुषाणो अद्य हविषा जातवेदो विशानि त्वा स्रज्वतो नय मा पत्युस्ये (pp. 295-296). These, to say the least, are of doubtful authenticity.

except Viṣṇu contains any reference to *satī*. The Manusmṛti is entirely silent about it. It is stated in Strabo (XV. 1. 30 and 62) that the Greeks under Alexander found *satī* practised among the Cathaei in the Punjab and that that practice arose from the apprehension that wives would desert or poison their husbands (Hamilton and Falconer's Translation vol. III). The Viṣṇu-dharmasūtra¹⁴⁶³ says 'On her husband's death the widow should observe celibacy or should ascend the funeral pyre after him.' The Mahābhārata, though it is profuse in the descriptions of sanguinary fights, is very sparing in its references to widow burning. Mādri, the favourite wife of Pāṇḍu, burnt herself with her husband's body.¹⁴⁶⁴ In the Virāṭa-parva Sairandhri is ordered to be burnt with Kīcaka,¹⁴⁶⁵ just as in ancient times it is said there was a custom to bury a slave or slaves along with the deceased ruler. The Mausala parva (7. 18) says that four wives of Vasudeva, viz. Devakī, Bhadrā, Rohini and Madirā burnt themselves with him and (chap. 7. 73-74) that Rukmiṇī, Gāndhārī, Śaibya, Haimavatī, Jāmbavatī among the consorts of Kṛṣṇa burnt themselves along with his body and other queens like Satyabhāmā went to a forest for *tapas*. The Viṣṇupurāṇa also says that eight queens of Kṛṣṇa, Rukmiṇī and others, entered fire on the death of Kṛṣṇa.¹⁴⁶⁶ The Śāntiparva (chap. 148) describes how a *kapotī* (female pigeon) entered fire on the death of her husband the bird.¹⁴⁶⁷ In the Strīparva (chap. 26) the Great Epic describes the death ceremonies performed for the fallen Kauravas, but no mention is made of any widow immolating herself on the funeral pyre though the chariots, clothes and weapons of the warriors are said to have been consigned to fire. From the above it appears

1463. मृते भर्तारि ब्रह्मचर्यं तदन्वारोहणं वा । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 25. 14 quoted by the *mitaśāstra* on Ya. I. 86.

1464. आदिपर्व 95. 65 'तत्रैनं चित्ताग्नित्थं माद्री समन्वारोह ।; आदि 125. 29 'राज्ञः शरीरेण सह समापिदं कलेवरम् । दग्धस्य सुप्रदिच्छन्नमेतद्वार्यं प्रियं कुरु ॥'

1465. सैरन्ध्र्याः स्रुतपुत्रेण सह दाहं विशां पतिः । विराटपर्व 23. 8.

1466. अष्टौ महिष्यः कथिता रुक्मिणीप्रसूतास्तु याः । उपगृह्य हरेर्वेदं विविशुस्ता हुताशनम् ॥ विष्णुपुराण V. 38. 2.

1467. पतिव्रता संपदीप्तं प्रविशेत् हुताशनम् ॥ ततश्चित्राङ्गदुधरं भर्तारं सान्त्वपश्यत । ततः स्वर्गं गतः पक्षी भार्याया सह संगतः । शान्ति 148. 10-12. This passage is quoted in the *Mit. on Yāj. I. 86* in support of the plea that *satī* is enjoined and leads to great bliss in the other world.

that the practice was originally confined to royal families and great warriors even in India and that cases of widow burning were rare. Several texts are cited by Aparārka from Paiṭhīnāsī, Āṅgīras, Vyāghrapād which apparently forbid self-immolation to brāhmaṇa widows.¹⁴⁶⁸ The authors of digests explain away these passages by saying that they only prohibit self-immolation by a brāhmaṇa widow on a funeral pyre different from that of the husband i. e. a brāhmaṇa widow can burn herself only on the funeral pyre of her husband and if his body is cremated elsewhere in a foreign land, his widow cannot, on hearing of his death, burn herself later. They rely on the text of Uśanas that a brāhmaṇa widow should not follow her husband on a separate funeral pyre. The Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti (II.53) says that a brāhmaṇa wife should enter fire, clasping the dead body of her husband ; if she lives (after her husband) she should give up adorning her hair and emaciate her body by austerities.¹⁴⁶⁹ In the Rāmāyaṇa,¹⁴⁷⁰ (Uttarakāṇḍa 17. 15) there is a reference to the self-immolation of a brāhmaṇa woman (the wife of a *brahmarṣi* and mother of Vedavati, who when molested by Rāvaṇa burnt herself in fire). The Mahābhārata (Strīparva 23. 34 ff.) on the other hand describes how Kṛpī, the wife of Droṇa, the brāhmaṇa commander-in-chief of the Kauravas, appeared with dishevelled hair on the battle-field on the death of her husband, but does not say that she burnt herself.¹⁴⁷¹ It appears therefore that the burning of brāhmaṇa widows began much later than that of kṣatriya widows.

The burning of a widow on the death of her husband is called *sahamarāṇa* or *sahagamana* or *anvārohaṇa* (when she

1468. पैठीनसिः । मृतासुगमनं नास्ति ब्राह्मण्या ब्रह्मशासनात् । इतरेषां तु वर्णानां स्त्रीधर्मोऽयं परः स्मृतः ॥ अङ्गिराः । या स्त्री ब्राह्मणजातीया मृतं पतिमनुजजेत् । सा स्वर्गमात्मघातेन नात्मानं न पतिं नयेत् ॥ व्याघ्रपात् । न ज्ञियेत सप्तं भर्ता ब्राह्मणी शोकमोहिता । प्रव्रज्यागतिमामोति मरणादात्मघातिनी ॥ quoted by अपरार्क p. 112. These are quoted by the मिता on या. I. 86 but without name, पृथक्चित्तिं समारुह्य न विप्रा गन्तुमर्हति । अन्यासां चैव नारीणां स्त्रीधर्मोऽयं परः स्मृतः ॥ उद्गनम् quoted by अपरार्क p. 112 and by मिता on या. I. 86.

1469. मृतं भर्तारमादाय ब्राह्मणी वह्निमाविशेत् । जीवन्ती (v. l. ब्राह्मणी) चेत्त्यक्त-केशा तपसा शोषयेद्बुधः ॥ वेदव्यास II. 53 quoted above in note 1379.

1470. अपरार्क p. 112 refers to the रामायण ' अत एव रामायणादौ ब्राह्मण्यादीनां स्वभर्तृशरीरालिङ्गनपूर्वकं स्वशरीरदहनसुपाख्यायते । '

1471. तां पश्य रुदतीमतीं शुक्लकेशीमधोमुखीम् । इतं पतिमुपासन्तीं द्रोणे शस्त्रभृतां वरम् ॥ बाणैर्भिन्नतनुबाणं धृष्टद्युम्नेन केशव । उपास्ते वै मृधे द्रोणं जदिला ब्रह्मचारिणी ॥ स्त्रीपर्व 23.

ascends the funeral pyre of her husband and is burnt along with his corpse), but *anumarāṇa* occurs when, after her husband is cremated elsewhere and she learns of his death, the widow resolves upon death and is burnt with the husband's ashes or his *pādukās* (sandals) or even without any memento of his if none be available¹⁴⁷² (vide *Aparārka* p. 111 and *Madana-pārijāta* p. 198). In the *Kumārasambhava* (IV. 34) of *Kālidāsa*, *Rati*, the wife of *Kāma* who was burnt by *Śiva*, speaks of throwing herself into fire, but is held back by a heavenly voice. In the *Gāthāsaptasatī* (VII. 33) there is a reference to a woman being decked for *anumarāṇa* (*Nirṇ.* ed.). The *Kāmasūtra* VI. 3.53 speaks of *anumarāṇa*. It has been shown (at p. 579) how *Varāhamihira* admires women for their courage in being burnt with their husbands. The *Harṣacarita* (Uchhvāsa 5) describes how *Yasomati*, the chief queen of king *Prabhākaravardhana* and mother of *Harṣa*, consigned herself to fire when the king was dying. But this is not a proper case of *sati*, as she burnt herself even before her husband died. In another passage of the *Harṣacarita* (V, in the description of night) the glory of moon-lotuses is said to be laughing like a woman intent on *anumarāṇa*, who is decked with ear ornaments and wears garlands on her head.¹⁴⁷³ *Bāna* in his *Kādambarī* in a most eloquent and well-reasoned passage condemns *anumarāṇa*.¹⁴⁷⁴ The *Bhāgavatapurāṇa*¹⁴⁷⁵ I. 13. 57 speaks of *Gāndhārī's* burning herself on the death of her husband, *Dhṛtarāṣṭra*. The

1472. देशान्तरमृते तस्मिन्साध्वी तत्प्रादुकाह्वयम् । निधायोरसि संसृद्धा प्रविशेज्जातवेदसम् ॥ ऋग्वेदवादात्साध्वी स्त्री न भवेदात्मघातिनी । इयद्वाच्यौचे तु निर्वृत्ते आर्द्रं प्राप्नोति शाश्वतम् ॥ ब्रह्मपुराण quoted by *अपरार्क* p. 111., where *अपरार्क* tells us that Vedic verses which render self-immolation free from the sin of suicide are verses like 'imā nārīr' (*Rg. X. 18. 7*) quoted in note 1450.

1473. Vide the passage beginning with 'दन्तामलपत्रप्रसाधितकर्णिकासु केसरमालाकल्पितमुण्डमालिकासु अनुमर्तुमिवोद्यतासु प्रहसितमुखीषु कुसुदलक्ष्मीषु' *हर्षचरित* V (6th para from the end).

1474. यदेतद्धुमरणं नाम तदतिनिष्फलम् । in paragraph 177 of my edition of the *pūrvabhāga*, which *Candrāpīḍa* addresses to *Mahāśvetā*, where he gives instances of famous women like *Rati*, *Prithā*, *Uttarā*, *Duḥśalā* that did not resort to *sahagamana* and winds up 'अन्याश्च रक्षःसुरासुरमुनिमनुजसिद्धगन्धर्वकन्यका भर्तुरहिताः श्रूयन्ते सहस्रशो विधृतजीविताः'.

1475. *रघुनन्दन* in his *शुद्धितत्त्व* (p. 242) quotes the passage of the *भागवतपुराण*.

Rājatarāṅgiṇī cites in several places (e.g. VI. 107, 195; VII. 103, 478) examples of *sati*.

In numerous epigraphic records reference is made to the practice of *sati*. Among the earliest is the one in 191 of the Gupta era (510 A. D.) in the Gupta Inscriptions (ed. by Fleet) p. 91. Vide also the Eran posthumous stone pillar Inscription of Goparāja which says that his wife accompanied him on the funeral pyre when he was killed in battle; I. A. vol. IX. p. 164 (Nepal Inscription of 705 A. D., where Rājyavati, widow of Dharmadeva, bids her son Mahādeva to take up the reins of government that she may follow her husband); the Belaturu Inscription of śaka 979 of the time of Rājendradeva Cola (E. I. vol. VI, p. 213) where a śūdra woman Dekabbe, on hearing of her husband's death, burnt herself in spite of the strong opposition of her parents who then erected a stone monument to her; E. I. vol. 14 p. 265, 267 where a grant is made in śaka 1103 to a temple by Sinda Mahāmaṇḍaleśvara Rācamalla on a request by two *satis*, widows of his general Becirāja; E. I. vol. 20, p. 168 (of Cedi *samvat* 919) which refers to three queens that became *satis*; E. I. vol. X, p. 39 where the Temara gate stone inscription of śaka 1246 speaks of Māṇikyadevi as sati on the death of her husband Āmana who was an officer of king Hariścandra; E. I. vol. 20 p. 58 (Mistra Deoli Inscription in Jodhpur when two queens of a Gohila Rāṇā became *satis*); E. I. vol. 16, p. 10, n. 4 and p. 11, n. 2 for sati records of śaka 1365 and 1362. In an article on 'Sati memorial stones' in J. B. O. R. S. vol. 23, p. 435 ff. it is shown how the memorial stones usually bear the figure of the upraised arm and of the sun and the moon on either side and a group of stars. Among the well-known latest historical examples of *sati* is that of Ramābāi, wife of the Peshwa Madhavrao I, in 1772 A. D. The Jauhar practised by the Rajput ladies of Chitor and other places for saving themselves from unspeakable atrocities at the hands of the victorious Moslems are too well-known to need any lengthy notice.

In the Indian Antiquary vol. 35 p. 129 there is a paper on 'Sati immolation which is not *sati*', where several examples of men who killed themselves out of devotion to their masters or for other causes are cited and it is pointed out how stone monuments (called *māstikkal* i. e. stone monument for *mahāsati* a great *sati*, and '*virakkal*' for brave and devoted men) are erected

in memory of *satīs* and men. The Harṣacarita (V. 3rd para from end) describes how many of the king's friends, ministers, servants and favourites killed themselves on the death of Prabhākaravardhana. The Rājatarāṅgiṇī VII. 481 narrates how when the queen of king Ananta became a *satī* on her husband's death, her litter-carrier and some other men and three of her *dāsīs* followed her in death. There is the example of a mother burning herself on the funeral pyre of her son (vide Rājatarāṅgiṇī VII. 1380). We shall see later on that suicide at holy places like Prayāga was practised for attaining heavenly worlds and bliss. Life seems to have been deemed of small account in those ages and though the death of women or men on the funeral pyre of the husband or for their masters appears to us sophisticated people of modern days as very horrible, it did not so appear to the ancients. *Satī* was not in historic times a practice imposed by priests or men on unwilling women. It somehow grew and it is improper to say that men imposed it on women. It may be that examples of *satī* occurred because of the force of popular sentiment. It was first confined to kings and nobles, because the lot of the wives of conquered kings and warriors was most miserable in all countries as well as in India. Vengeance for the truculence of their husbands was wreaked on the poor wives by carrying them as captives and making them work as slaves. Manu (VII. 96) allows a soldier to retain women (probably 'slaves') conquered by him along with other booty. When queen Yaśomatī narrates to her son Harṣa the great honour and glory that was hers during the reign of her husband king Prabhākaravardhana, she refers to the fact that the wives of the enemies defeated by her husband waved chowries over her.¹⁴⁷⁶ From kings the practice spread among brāhmaṇas, though as shown above, several smṛtikāras disapproved of the practice among brāhmaṇa wives. Once it took root learned commentators and digest writers were found to support it with arguments and promises of future rewards. Even in modern times we can secure learned writers to support any pet theory of a coterie or clique. When Manchester and Liverpool were prosperous, English economists preached the doctrine of free trade and *laissez faire* to all nations, but in more difficult times we have now the apotheosis of Empire Preference and discriminating preference for home-made goods. Manu IV. 178 asks people to do whatever their forefathers did.

1476. आपीनौ युष्मद्विधैः पुत्रैरमित्रकलत्रवन्दीवृन्दविधूयमानचामरमञ्जलचीना-
शुकधरो पयोधरो । हर्षचरित V.

The rewards promised to a *sati* were as follows: Śaṅkha and Angiras¹⁴⁷⁷ say 'she who follows her husband in death dwells in heaven for as many years as there are hairs on the human body, viz. 3½ crores of years. Just as a snake-catcher draws out a snake from a hole by force, so such a woman draws her husband from (wherever he may be) and enjoys bliss together with him. In heaven she being solely devoted to her husband and praised by bevy of heavenly damsels sports with her husband for as long as fourteen Indras rule. Even if the husband be guilty of the murder of a brāhmaṇa or of a friend or be guilty of ingratitude, the wife who dies (in fire) clasping his body, purifies him (of the sin). That woman, who ascends (the funeral pyre) when the husband dies, is equal to Arundhati in her character and is praised in heaven. As long as a woman does not burn herself in fire on the death of her husband she is never free from being born as a woman (in successive births)'. Hārīta says 'that woman who follows her husband in death purifies three families, viz. of her mother, of her father and of her husband'. The Mit. after quoting the above passages adds that this duty of anvārohana is common to the women of all castes from the brāhmaṇa to the cāṇḍāla, provided they are not pregnant or they have no young children (at the husband's death)'.¹⁴⁷⁸

There were old commentators who were opposed to the practice of *sati*. Medhātithi on Manu V. 157 (Kāmaṁ tu &c.) compares this practice to *śyenayāga* which a man performed by

1477. तिस्रः कोट्योर्धकोटी च यानि लोमानि माञ्जुषे । तावत्कालं वसेत्स्वर्गं भर्तारं याजुगच्छति ॥ व्याजग्राही यथा सर्पं बलादुद्धरते विलात् । तद्वदुद्धृत्य सा नारी सह तेनैव मोदते ॥ तत्र सा भर्तृपरमा स्तुयमानापसुरोगणैः । क्रीडते पतिना सार्धं यावद्विन्द्राश्चतुर्दश ॥ ब्रह्मघ्नो वा कृतघ्नो वा मित्रघ्नो वा भवेत्यतिः । पुनात्यविधवा नारी तमादाय मृता तु या ॥ मृते भर्तारं या नारी समारोहेद्भुताशनम् । सारन्धरीसमाचारा स्वर्गलोके महीयते ॥ यावच्चाग्नौ मृते पत्यौ स्त्री नात्मानं प्रदाहयेत् । तावच्च मुच्यते सा हि स्त्रीशरीरात्कथंचन ॥ quoted by the *mita* on ya. I. 86, अपरार्क p. 110, छाद्वितत्त्व p. 234. The two verses तिस्रः कोट्यो &c. are also पराशर IV. 32 and 33 and ब्रह्मपुराण, गौतमीमाहात्म्य chap. 10. 76 and 74.

1478. अयं च सर्वासां स्त्रीणामगर्भिणीनामबालापत्यानामाचाण्डालं साधारणो धर्मः । भर्तारं याजुगच्छतीत्यविशेषोपादानात् । *mita* on ya. I. 86; vide the same words in मद्. पा. p. 196 and स्मृतिसु० (संस्कार p. 162), in which latter they are expressly quoted from विज्ञानेश्वर.

way of black magic to kill his enemy. He says¹⁴⁷⁹ that though Āṅgiras allowed 'anumarāṇa' it is suicide and is really forbidden to women. Just as the Veda says 'śyenēnābhīcaran yajet' and yet śyenayāga is not looked upon as dharma, but rather as adharma (vide Śābara on Jaimini I. 1. 2), so, though Āṅgiras speaks of it, it is really *adharma*; and that a woman who is in a hurry and extremely anxious to secure heaven quickly for herself and her husband might act according to Āṅgiras, still her action is *aśūstrīya* (not in accordance with the śāstras); besides *anvārohaṇa* is opposed to the Vedic text 'one should not leave this world before one has finished one's allotted span of life'. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 86 combats these arguments. It says that śyenayāga is no doubt undesirable and therefore adharma, but that is so because the object of śyenayāga is injury to another. *Anugamana* on the other hand is not so; there the result promised is heaven which is a desirable result and which is enjoined by *śruti* in such sentences as 'one should sacrifice a white goat to Vāyu if one desires prosperity'. Similarly the *smṛti* about *anugamana* is not opposed to the *śruti* quoted, the meaning of which is different; that *śruti* means 'one should not waste one's life for securing heavenly bliss which is fleeting and insignificant as compared with the supreme bliss of Brahma knowledge'. As the woman in *anumarāṇa* desires only heaven, she is not doing anything contrary to the *śruti* texts. This is the reasoning of the Mitākṣarā which looks like special pleading. Aparārka p. 111, the Madanapārijāta p. 199, Par. M. II. part I pp. 55-56 follow the reasoning of the Mit. and add that the Vedic text about the allotted span of life is a general rule, while the *smṛti* about *anumarāṇa* is a special or exceptional śāstra and so there is no contradiction as the rule applies to all cases outside the excepted one. The Madanapārijāta (p. 200) further explains that the texts about purifying a husband guilty of brāhmaṇa murder are not to be taken literally but only as hyperbolically extolling *anvārohaṇa*.

1479. पुंस्त्रीणामपि प्रतिषिद्ध आत्मत्यागो यदप्याङ्गिरसे पतिमञ्चयिष्येरन्नित्युक्तं तदपि नित्यवदवश्यं कर्तव्यम् । फलस्तुतिस्तत्रास्ति फलकामायाश्चाधिकारे श्येनतुल्यता । तथैव श्येनेन हिंसाचूतानीत्यधिकारस्यातिप्रवृद्धतरद्वेषान्धतया सत्यामपि प्रवृत्तौ न धर्मत्वम्, एवमिहापि अतिप्रवृद्धफलाभिलाषायाः सत्यपि प्रतिषेधे तदतिक्रमेण मरणे प्रवृत्त्युपपत्तेर्न शास्त्रीयत्वमतोस्त्येव पतिमनु मरणेऽपि स्त्रियाः प्रतिषेधः । किं च 'तस्माद् ह न पुरायुषः मेयात्' इति मृत्युश्रुतिविरोधोऽयम् । मेधा० on मनु V. 156. The words of शबर are 'नैव श्येनादयः कर्तव्या विज्ञायन्ते । यो हि हिंसितुमिच्छेत्तस्यायमभ्युपाय इति तेषामुपदेशः । श्येनेनाभिचरन्त्यजेतेति हि समामनन्ति नाभिचरित्वमिति । on जै. I. 1. 2. p. 19.

The Sm. C. also expressly says that anvārohana,¹⁴⁸⁰ though recommended by the Viṣṇu Dh. S. (25. 14) and Āṅgiras, is inferior to brahmacarya (leading a celibate life), since the rewards of anvārohana are inferior to those of brahmacarya. As against this may be cited the extreme view of Āṅgiras 'for all women there is no other duty except falling into the funeral pyre, when the husband dies.'¹⁴⁸¹ The Śuddhitattva remarks that this extreme or sweeping statement is made by way of belauding *sahamarāṇa*.

We saw above that brāhmaṇa widows were only allowed anvārohana, but not *anumarāṇa*. There were other restrictions enjoined by the smṛtis on all widows 'wives who have a child of tender years, who are pregnant, who have not attained puberty and who are in their monthly course do not mount the funeral pyre of their husbands'¹⁴⁸²—from the Brāhman-Nāradya purāṇa. There is a similar verse of Brhaspati. The wife who was in her course was allowed to burn herself after she bathed on the fourth day.

Āpastamba (verse) prescribes the Prājāpatya penance for a woman who having first resolved to burn herself on the funeral pyre turns back from it at the last moment.¹⁴⁸³ The Rājatarāṅgiṇī (VI. 196) refers to a queen who having pretended to have resolved on becoming *satī* ultimately regretted the step and turned back.

The Śuddhitattva sets out the procedure of widow burning.¹⁴⁸⁴ The widow bathes and puts on two white garments, takes kuśa blades in her hands, faces the east or north, performs ācamana (sipping water); when the brāhmaṇas say 'om, tat sat' she remembers the God Nārāyaṇa and refers to the time (month, fortnight,

1480. यत्तु विष्णुना धर्मान्तरसुक्तं मृते भर्तरि ब्रह्मचर्यं तदन्वारोहणं वा तदेतद्धर्मान्तरमपि ब्रह्मचर्यधर्माज्जघन्यम् । निकृष्टफलत्वात् । स्मृतिच० on स्वय. p. 254.

1481. सर्वास्मादेव नारीणामग्निप्रपतनादृते । नान्यो धर्मो हि विज्ञेयो मृते भर्तरि कश्चित् ॥ अङ्गिरस् quoted by अपरार्क p. 109, परा. मा. II. 1. p. 58, छुद्रितत्त्व (p. 234 reads साध्वीनामेव नारीणां). साध्वीनामिह नारीणां is also बृहदारिती XI. 202.

1482. बालापत्याश्च गर्भिण्यो अदृष्टकृतवस्तथा । रजस्वला राजसुते नारोहन्ति चित्तं शुभे ॥ नारदीयपुराण quoted by परा. मा. II. part 1, p. 58, छुद्रितत्त्व p. 236, स्मृतिसुक्ताफल I. p. 162 (ascribes to और्व). 'बालसंवर्धनं त्यक्त्वा बालापत्या न गच्छति । रजस्वला सूतिका च रक्षेद्गर्भं च गर्भिणी ॥ बृहस्पति quoted by परा. मा. and छुद्रितत्त्व.

1483. चित्तिभ्रष्टा तु वा नापी मोहाद्विचलिता ततः । प्राजापत्येन शुध्येत् तस्मादैवापकर्माणः ॥ आपस्तम्ब quoted by अपरार्क p. 1193 and छुद्रितत्त्व p. 243.

1484. Vide appendix under 1484.

tilhi) and then makes the *saṅkalpa* (declaration of resolve) set out below. She then calls upon the eight *lokapālas* (guardians of the quarters), the sun, the moon, the fire &c. to become witnesses to her act of following her husband on the funeral pyre, she then goes round the fire thrice, then the brāhmaṇa recites the Vedic verse 'imā nārīr &c.' (Rg. X. 18. 7) and a Purāṇa verse 'may these very good and holy women who are devoted to their husbands enter fire together with the body of the husband,' the woman utters 'namo namaḥ' and ascends the kindled pyre. The long-winded preamble of the *saṅkalpa* 'arundhatī...patipūtatvakāmā' is based upon the verses of Aṅgiras quoted above (in n. 1477). The Śuddhitattva as printed is corrupt but it appears that it read the last quarter of Rg. X. 18. 7 as 'ārohanu jalayoni-agne' (let them ascend the watery seat or origin, O fire!) meaning probably 'may fire be to them as cool as water'. Some writers have charged the brāhmaṇa priest-hood (or Raghunandana) with having purposely changed the reading of the verse Rg. X. 18. 7 in order to make it suit the rite of immolating oneself in fire (i. e. 'agne' or 'agneḥ' was substituted for 'agre'). But this charge is not sustainable. That the verse Rg. X. 18. 7 as it actually is was held to refer to widow burning centuries before Raghunandana follows from the fact that even the Brahmapurāṇa¹⁴⁸⁵ and Aparārka (quoted above on p. 628) take it in that sense. It was therefore not necessary to alter the reading. Further even if some priests or Raghunandana had changed it that fact would have been detected in no time, as in those days there were thousands of people who knew every syllable of the R̥gveda by heart. Therefore it must be admitted that either the MSS. are corrupt or Raghunandana committed an innocent slip. That mantra was not addressed to widows at all, but to ladies of the deceased man's household whose husbands were living and the gr̥hyasūtra of Āśv. made use of it with that meaning. Raghunandana, a profound student of dharmasāstras and smṛtis (and often styled Smārta-bhaṭṭācārya), could not have been ignorant of what Āśv. said. The procedure as prescribed in the Nirṇaya-sindhu¹⁴⁸⁶ of Kamalākarabhaṭṭa, whose mother became a *satī*

1485. शुद्धितत्त्व (p. 235) itself quotes the ब्रह्मपुराण text 'ऋग्वेदवादात् साध्वी स्त्री'

1486. Vide निर्णयसिन्धु III, उत्तरार्ध p. 623 and धर्मसिन्धु pp. 483-484. The निर्णयसिन्धु expressly refers to the Gauda procedure as different from his "गौडास्तु 'इमा नारीरविधवाः' इति 'ओं इमाः पतिव्रताः... विभावसुम्' इति च विप्रः पठेदित्याहुः।".

and who pays a very tender and touching reverence to her memory in his works, is somewhat different and it is followed by the Dharmasindhu.

It appears from all accounts of travellers and others that widow-burning prevailed more in Bengal during the centuries immediately preceding its abolition than anywhere else in India.¹⁴⁸⁷ If that was so, there were certain good reasons for that state of things. In the whole of India, except Bengal, the widows of members in a joint Hindu family are only entitled to maintenance and have no other rights over the property of the family. In Bengal, wherever the Dāyabhāga prevails, the widow of a sonless member even in a joint Hindu family is entitled to practically the same rights over joint family property which her deceased husband would have had. This must have frequently induced the surviving¹⁴⁸⁸ members to get rid of the widow by appealing at a most distressing hour to her devotion to and love for her husband. This rule of the widow's right was not for the first time propounded by Jimūtavāhana; he makes it clear that he followed a predecessor called Jiten-driya. The figures given above lend support to the view expressed here, since Benares, where the rights of widows were insignificant, was responsible for a small number of *satis* only. It is impossible, however, to believe that the number of widows in ordinary stations of life burning themselves was very large at any time or that most of the widows that did so were coerced into doing it. There is a good deal of epigraphic and other evidence particularly in other parts of India that relatives tried to dissuade the widow from taking the step. Even in Bengal the number of *satis* must never have been very

1487. Thomson in his book on 'Suttee' (pp. 69, 72) gives the figures for *satis* reported from the Bengal Presidency (which then included Bihar and extended up to Benares) during 1815-1828. The lowest figure was 378 in 1815 and the highest 839 in 1818. Out of the total of 2366 cases during the four years 1815-1818, the Calcutta division alone contributed 1485, the Benares division, the seat of orthodoxy, contributed only 343. Vide H. H. Wilson's 'History of India' (ed. of 1858), vol. III (for 1805-1835 A. D.), pp. 185-192. At p. 189 a table of the number of *satis* for 1815-1828 is given, from which it appears that in 1828 there were 463 cases of *satis* out of whom 420 came from Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, out of which 287 were from the Calcutta division alone.

1488. Vide दायभाग (ed. by Jivānanda, 1893) 'अतोऽविज्ञेयेनैव विभक्त्या न पेक्षयेव अयुत्रस्य भर्तुः कृत्स्नधने पत्न्यधिकारो जितेन्द्रियोक्त आदुरणीयः' p. 46; 'पत्नी च भर्तुधनं भुञ्जीतेव परं न तु तस्य दानाधमनविक्रयान्कर्तुमर्हति' p. 56.

large. Colebrooke, who had spent the best part of his life in Bengal and who was a profound Sanskrit scholar, observes in a paper written about 1795 A. D. 'Happily the martyrs of this superstition have never been numerous. It is certain that the instances of the widow's sacrifices are now rare'.¹⁴⁸⁹ The very fact that there was no disturbance of peace or ebullition of popular feeling or even any great verbal protest from the vast Hindu population (except a petition to the Privy Council) against Bentinck's sweeping measure indicates two things, viz. that the burning of widows was a rare occurrence and that people were not very keen on observing the practice nor had they any very deep-seated convictions about its absolute religious necessity.¹⁴⁹⁰

Modern India does not justify the practice of *sati*, but it is a warped mentality that rebukes modern Indians for expressing admiration and reverence for the cool and unfaltering courage of Indian women in becoming *satis* or performing the *jauhar* for cherishing their ideals of womanly conduct. If Englishmen can feel pride in their ancestors who grabbed one fourth of the world's surface or if Frenchmen can feel pride in the deeds of their Emperor Napoleon who tried to enslave the whole of Europe and yet are not held up to ridicule or rebuke, there is no reason why poor Indians cannot express admiration for the sacrifices which their women made in the past, though they may condemn the institution itself which demanded such terrible sacrifice and suffering.

1489. Vide Colebrooke's *Miscellaneous Essays* (ed. of 1837) vol. I. p. 122.

1490. Vide Fitz-Edward Hall's paper in *J. R. A. S.* vol. III New Series (1868) pp. 190-191, footnote, where he quotes extracts from the writings of Prof. Wilson, Marshman and others that show how fears of violent resistance to Bentinck's measure were singularly falsified.

CHAPTER XVI

VESYĀ

Veśyā—(Courtesan). This work dealing among other matters with the position of women and marriage in India would be incomplete if nothing were said about prostitutes and concubines. Prostitution has existed from the dawn of history in all countries and in the absence of statistics it is difficult to say whether it flourished more in one country than in another or whether it existed to a greater or lesser extent in ancient days as compared with modern times. The article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* on prostitution will be an eye-opener to many who will be inclined to turn their nose at Indian conditions.

From the *Rgveda* we find that there were women who were common to several men i. e. who were courtezans or prostitutes. In *Rg. I. 167. 4* the bright Maruts (storm gods) are said to have become associated with the young (lightning), just as men become associated with a young courtesan.¹⁴⁹¹ It has already been seen how in *Rg. II. 29. 1* reference is made to a woman who gives birth in secret to a child and leaves it aside. In *Rg. I. 66. 4, I. 117. 18, I. 134. 3* and other places *jūra* (paramour or secret lover) is spoken of. In *Gaut. XXII. 27* it is said that for killing a woman who is a *brāhmaṇī* by birth only and who subsists by harlotry no *prāyaścitta* is necessary but eight handfuls of corn may be gifted. *Manu IV. 209* forbids a *brāhmaṇa* from taking food offered by harlots (vide also *IV. 219*); and *Manu IX. 259* requires the king to punish clever (or deceitful) harlots. In the *Mahābhārata* courtezans are an established institution. The *Ādiparva* (115. 39) narrates how a *veśyā* waited upon *Dhṛtarāṣṭra* when his wife *Gāndhārī* was pregnant.¹⁴⁹² In the *Udyogaparva* (30. 38) *Yudhiṣṭhira* sends greetings to the *veśyās* of the *Kauravas*. Courtezans are described as going out to welcome *Kṛṣṇa* when he came on a mission of peace to the *Kaurava* court (*Udyoga* 86. 15). When the *Pāṇḍava* armies are described as about to start for battle it

1491. परा शुभ्रा अयासो यस्या साधारण्येव मरुतो निमिषुः । ऋ. I. 167. 4.

1492. गान्धार्यां क्षिप्यमानायामुदरेण विवर्धता । धृतराष्ट्रं महाराजं वेस्यां पर्यचर-
त्किल ॥ आदि 115. 39.

is said that carts, markets and courtezans also accompanied them (Udyoga 151. 58). Vide also Vanaparva 239. 37, Karpaparva 94. 26. Yāj. ¹⁴⁹³ II. 290 divides concubines into two sorts, *avaruddhā* (one who is kept in the house itself and forbidden to have intercourse with any other male) and *bhujisṛyā* (concubine who is not kept in the house, but elsewhere and is in the special keeping of a person) and prescribes a fine of fifty paṇas against another person having intercourse with them. Nārada ¹⁴⁹⁴ (*striṣuṁsa*, 78-79) says 'intercourse is permitted with wanton women (*svairiṇī*) who are not brāhmaṇa by caste, with a prostitute, a female slave, or a female not restrained by her master; if these belong to a caste lower than oneself; but it is forbidden with women of superior caste. But when these very women are the kept mistresses (of a person) intercourse with them by a stranger is as much a crime as intercourse with another's wife. Such women must not be approached, though intercourse with them is not forbidden (on the ground of caste &c.), since they belong to another.' On Yāj. II. 290 the Mit., after quoting the Skandapurāṇa to the effect that prostitutes constitute a separate caste being sprung from certain *Apsurases* (heavenly nymphs) called *pañcacūḍās*, states that such courtezans as are not kept specially by a person do not incur any sin, nor punishment at the hands of the king, if they have intercourse with men of the same or a superior caste, nor do men approaching them incur any penalty if they are not *avaruddhā*. But the men who visit them incur sin (which is an unseen result), since the smṛtis ordain that men should be devoted to their wives (vide Yāj. I. 81) and the prajāpatya penance is prescribed for him who has intercourse with a *veśyā* (vide Atri v. 271). Nārada ¹⁴⁹⁵ (*vetanasyānapākarma* 18) lays down that if a public woman after getting her fee refuses to receive the customer, she shall pay twice the amount of the fee and the same fine shall be imposed on a man who does not pay the (stipulated) fee, after having had intercourse with a *veśyā*. Vide Yāj. II. 292 and Matsyapurāṇa 227. 144-145 for

1493. अवकृद्वासु दासीषु भुजिष्यासु तथैव च । गम्यास्वपि पुमान्दाप्यः पञ्चाङ्गात्यजिकं दमम् ॥ याज्ञ. II. 290. The mita° explains 'ता एव स्वामिनां भुज्यमानानिष्युदासार्थं यद् एव स्यात्तस्य नित्येवं पुरुषान्तरपभोगतो निरुद्धा अवकृद्वाः । पुरुषनियतपरिग्रहा भुजिष्याः ।'.

1494. स्वैरिष्यब्राह्मणी वेद्या दासी निष्कासिनी च या । गम्याः स्त्रुताकुलोभ्येन स्त्रियो न प्रतिलोमतः ॥ आस्वेव तु भुजिष्यासु दोषः स्यात्परदारवत् । गम्या अपि हि नोपेया यत्ताः परपरिग्रहाः ॥ नारद, स्त्रीषु 78-79.

1495. कुलकं गृहीत्वा पण्यस्त्री नेच्छन्ती द्विस्तदाप्युयात् । अत्रयच्छंस्तदा कुलकमनुभूय पुमान्द स्त्रियम् ॥ नारद (वेतनस्यानपाकर्म 18).

similar provisions. The Matsyapurāṇa chap. 70 dilates upon veśyādharmā. The Kāmasūtra I. 3. 20 defines a *gaṇikā* as a *veśyā* who is most accomplished and proficient in the 64 *kalās*. Aparārka (p. 800, on Yāj. II. 198) quotes Nārada (cited above) and several verses of the Matsyapurāṇa about veśyās.

Concubines being recognized by society, the *smṛtis* provided for their maintenance. During the life-time of a person keeping a concubine, the latter has no legal right to proceed against the former. Nārada (*dāyabhāga* ¹⁴⁹⁶ 52) and Kātyāyana lay down that even when the property of a deceased person escheats to the king for want of heirs (except in the case of the deceased being a brāhmaṇa) the king has first to provide for the maintenance of the concubines of the deceased, of his slaves and for his śrāddhas. The Mit. says that the concubines here referred to are those called *avaruddhā* (and not *bhujisṛyā*) and that even the kept mistresses of a deceased brāhmaṇa are entitled to maintenance from his property. The Privy Council in *Bai Nagubai v. Bai Monghibai* have gone beyond the Mit. and have held that all concubines (whether kept in the house practically as members of the family i. e. *avaruddhā* or not so kept i. e. *bhujisṛyā*) within the exclusive keeping of a Hindu till his death are entitled to maintenance from his property after his death, provided they are continuously chaste thereafter. ¹⁴⁹⁷

The rights of the illegitimate children of concubines to inheritance or maintenance will be dealt with later on under inheritance.

Out of the saṁskāras enumerated above (pp. 195-197), the Mahāyajñas, Utsarjana and Upākarma will be described under the next chapter, viz. *āhnikā* and *antyestī* under āśauca.

1496. अदायिकं राजगामि योषिद्भृत्यौर्ध्वदेहिकम् । अपास्य ओत्रियद्रव्यं ओत्रिये-
भ्यस्तदपयेत् ॥ कात्यायन quoted in the *mita* on ya. II. 135. *mita* 'तत्स्त्रीणामज्ञ-
नाच्छादनोपयुक्तं और्ध्वदेहिकं धनिनः आह्वाद्युपयुक्तं चापास्य परिहृत्य राजगामि भवतीति
संबन्धः । अस्यापवादः । ओत्रियद्रव्यं च योषिद्भृत्यौर्ध्वदेहिकमपास्य ओत्रियायोपपादये-
दिति । एतदप्यवरुद्धस्त्रीविषयम् । योषिद्ग्रहणात् । नारदवचनं च अन्यत्र ब्राह्मणात् ...
इत्यवरुद्धस्त्रीविषयमेव स्त्रीग्रहणहणात् ।'

1497. L. R. 53. I. A. 153 = 50 Bom. 604.

CHAPTER XVII

ĀHNIKA AND ĀCĀRA

(Daily and periodical duties and ceremonies)

This forms a very important topic of dharmaśāstra. The daily duties of the *brahmacārin* have been already described above and those of the *vīṇapraṣṭha* and *yati* will be spoken of later on. Under this section we are concerned principally with the duties of the *snātaka* (the would-be householder) and the *gṛhastha* (the householder).

Before the *āhnikā* duties are described a few remarks about the importance of the stage of householder would not be out of place. It has already been shown (pp. 424-425) how one school of dharmaśāstra writers represented by Gautama and Baudhāyana looked upon the stage of householder as the only āśrama. The eulogies of the householder are sung in numerous passages of the Dharmaśāstra works. Gaut. ¹⁴⁹⁸ (III. 3) declares that the householder is the source (support) of all the other āśramas, because the other three do not produce offspring. Manu (III. 77-78) states that as all creatures live by receiving support from the air, so other āśramas subsist by relying for support on the householder and that as men belonging to all the three other orders (āśramas) are supported from day to day by the householder alone with (gifts of) food and sacred knowledge, the householder's is therefore the most excellent āśrama. Manu (VI. 89-90) reiterates the same sentiments under a different figure 'just as all big and small rivers find a resting place in the ocean, so men of all āśramas find support in the householder and the householder is declared to be the most excellent of all the āśramas by the precepts of the Veda and smṛtis, since he supports the other three'. Viṣṇu Dh. S. (59. 27-29) contains almost the same remarks as Manu. Vide Vas. VIII. 14-16 (15 being identical with Manu VI. 90). Vas. VII. 17 (and X. 31), Baud. Dh. S. II. 2. 1, Udyogaparva 40. 25 say that a householder observing the rules laid down for him does not fall

1498. तेषां गृहस्थो यो निरयजन्त्वादितरेषाम् । गौ. III. 3.

away from the world of Brahma.¹⁴⁹⁹ In the Mahābhārata also the eulogy of the order of householder is frequent. Śāntiparva 296. 39 is the same as Manu VI. 90. Śānti 270. 6-7 states 'as all beings live on the support given by their mothers, so other āśramas subsist on the support of the order of householders'.¹⁵⁰⁰ In the same chapter (verses 10-11) Kapila condemns those who hold that *mokṣa* (final release from *samsāra*) is not possible for him who remains a householder. Śānti 12. 12 holds that, if weighed in the balance, the order of householders is equal to all the other three put together. Vide also Śānti 11. 15, 23. 2-5, Vanaparva chap. 2. The Ayodhyākāṇḍa 106. 22 also says that the stage of householder is the most excellent of all āśramas.

The brāhmaṇa householder is again divided into several varieties from different points of view. Baud. Dh. S. III. 1. 1, Devala (quoted in the Mit. on Yāj. I. 128) and other works divide a householder into two varieties viz. śālīna and yāyāvara,¹⁵⁰¹ the latter being superior to the former.¹⁵⁰² The śālīna

1499. नित्योदकी नित्ययज्ञोपवीती नित्यस्वाध्यायी पतिताम्रवर्जी । ऋतौ च गच्छन्विधिवच्च जुह्वन्न ब्राह्मणश्चयवते ब्रह्मलोकात् ॥ वसिष्ठ VIII. 17 (X. 31 is the same in prose). Vide note 691 above.

1500. यथा मातरमाश्रित्य सर्वे जीवन्ति जन्तवः । एवं गार्हस्थ्यमाश्रित्य वर्तन्त इतराश्रमाः ॥ शान्तिपर्व 270. 6-7 (= Vas. VIII. 16, where the last pāda is सर्वे जीवन्ति भिक्षुकाः).

1501. अथ शालीन-यायावर-चक्रचरधर्मकाङ्क्षिणां नवभिर्वृत्तिभिर्वर्तमानानाम् । शालाश्रयत्वाच्छालीनत्वम् । वृत्त्या वरया यातीति यायावरत्वम् । अनुक्रमेण चरणाच्चक्रचरत्वम् । बौ. ध. सू. III. 1. 1, 3-5. बौ. derives शालीन from शाला (a house) and यायावर from या (to go) and वर (best). पाणिनि V. 2. 20 (which is explained in the Mahābhāṣya) teaches that शालीन in the sense of bashful (अधुष्ट) is derived from शाला. Probably in Pāṇini's day householders had not come to be divided into शालीन and यायावर. बौ. appears to hold that there is a third variety called चक्रचर, but this does not occur elsewhere.

1502. यथाह देवलः । द्विविधो गृहस्थो यायावरः शालीनश्च । तयोर्यायावरः प्रवरो याजनाध्यापनप्रतिग्रहरिक्थसंचयवर्जनात् । पट्टकमाधिष्ठितः श्रेष्ठचतुष्पादगृहग्रामधनधान्ययुक्तो शालीनः । इति । शालीनोपि चतुर्विधः । याजनाध्यापनप्रतिग्रहकुषिवाणिज्यपाशुपालयैः पट्टभिर्जीवत्येकः । याजनादिभिस्त्रिभिरन्यः । याजनाध्यापनाभ्यामपरः । चतुर्थस्त्वध्यापनेनैव । मित्ता. on या. I. 128. कुसुलधान्यको वा स्यात्कुम्भीधान्यक एव वा । ज्यौहिको वापि भवेद्व्यस्तनिक एव वा ॥ मनु IV. 7. मेधा- explains the kusūla as a granary built with bricks and indicates that he may store in it as much as such a granary will hold; while *kumbh* means a receptacle storing as much as will last for six months. हारीत quoted in Gr. R. derives 'सर्वस्ववस्थानु बह्व्योस्य शाला इति शालीनः शालावानिति वा शालीनः शालायामात्मवृत्तिभिर्वा लीनः शालीनः । शालीनादात्मवृत्तिपापनाद्वर इति यायावरः । दश दश रात्रीर्वसन्त्यातीति यायावरः । परास्वष्टसु वृत्तिष्वात्मानं पापयतीति यायावरः । अथास्याष्टौ वृत्तयो भवन्ति । उच्छृङ्खिलायाचितोपपन्नसंदर्शनवध्रुस्कन्धकुडालकपोती । (pp. 415 and 419).

is one who dwells in a house, is possessed of servants and cattle, has a fixed place and a fixed village and has grain and wealth and follows the life of worldly people; the yāyāvāra is one who subsists by the best of livelihood, viz. picking up grains that fall down when the corn that is reaped is taken to the house or threshing floor by the owner and who does not accumulate wealth or who does not earn his livelihood by officiating as priest, or by teaching or by accepting gifts. Manu (IV. 7) appears to divide brāhmaṇa householders into four varieties, viz. one who possesses enough to fill a granary or a store filling a corn jar, one who collects as much as will satisfy his needs for three days, or one who makes no provision for the morrow. Vide Śāntiparva 244.1-4 and Laghu-Viṣṇu II.17 for similar statements. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 128 says that 'śālina is of four varieties viz. (1) one who maintains himself by officiating as a priest, teaching Veda, accepting gifts, agriculture, trade and breeding cattle, (2) one who subsists by the first three out of the above six, (3) one who subsists by officiating as a priest and by teaching, (4) one who subsists by teaching alone. Manu IV. 9 (as interpreted by the Mit.) refers to these four varieties. The Āp. Śr. (V. 3. 22) distinguishes between śālina and yāyāvāra.¹⁵⁰³ The Baud. gr. III. 5. 4 refers to yāyāvāra. The word 'yāyāvāra' occurs in the Tai. S. V. 2. 1. 7¹⁵⁰⁴ 'therefore the active man lords it over one who is easy-going'; but here the word has not probably any technical sense.

In the Vaik. VIII. 5¹⁵⁰⁵ (= Vaik. Dh. S. I. 5) householders are divided into four classes. The first class (called vārtāvṛtti)

1503. उद्दवसाय शालीन आदधीताउद्दवसाय यायावरीयः। आप. श्रौ. V. 3. 22. The com. रुद्रदत्त explains यायावर as यात्वा यात्वा यत्र क्वचन वासीति.

1504. तस्माद्यायावरः क्षेम्यस्येक्षे। तै. सं. V. 2. 1. 7.

1505. गृहस्थश्चतुर्विधा वार्तावृत्तिः शालीनवृत्तिर्यायावरो योराचारिकश्चेति। वार्तावृत्तिः कृषिगोरक्ष्यवाणिज्योपजीवी। शालीनवृत्तिर्नियमैर्दुतः पाकयज्ञैरिष्टाग्नीनाधाय पक्षे पक्षे दर्शपूर्णमासयाजी चतुर्षु चतुर्षु मासेषु चातुर्मास्ययाजी षट्सु षट्सु मासेषु पञ्चवन्धयाजी प्रतिसंवत्सरं सोमयाजी च। यायावरो हविर्यज्ञैः सोमयज्ञैश्च यजते याजयत्यधीते ऽध्यापयति ददाति प्रतिगृह्णाति षट्कर्मनिरतो नित्यमग्निपरिचरणमतिथिभ्योऽभ्यागत्योऽन्नाद्यं च कुर्वते। योराचारिको नियमैर्दुको यजते न याजयत्यधीते नाध्यापयति ददाति न प्रतिगृह्णाति उच्छ्व-वृत्तिमुपजीवति नारायणपरायणः सार्यपातरग्निहोत्रं हुत्वा मार्गशीर्ष-ज्येष्ठमासयोरसिधाराव्रतं वनौषधिभिरग्निपरिचरणं करोति। वैखानसगृह्य VIII. 5. Vide also IV. 2 for शालीन and यायावर. The असिधाराव्रत according to the com. consists in standing in water for tapas in मार्गशीर्ष and in the midst of five fires in ज्येष्ठ. The असिधाराव्रत is differently defined in other works. Vide नीतिज्ञतक of भर्तृहरि verse 64 (Telang's ed.) 'प्रदानं प्रच्छन्नं...विषममसिधाराव्रतमिदम्.'

maintains itself by agriculture, cattle-rearing and trade; the second (*śālina*) observes various *niyamas* (vide Yāj. III. 313), offers *pākayajñas* (sacrifices of cooked food), kindles the *śrauta* fires, offers the *darśa* and *pūrnamāsa* sacrifices each half month, offers *cāturmāsya*s, in each half year offers an animal sacrifice and each year the *soma* sacrifice; the third (*yāvāvara*) is engaged in the six actions viz. offering sacrifices of *havis* and *soma*, officiating as priest at such sacrifices, studying the Veda and teaching it, making gifts and receiving them, constantly attends his fires (*śrauta* and *smārta*), and gives food to guests that come to him; the fourth (called *ghorācārika*, one whose rules are awfully difficult to observe) is observant of *niyamas*, offers sacrifices but does not officiate at others' sacrifices, studies the Veda but does not teach it, makes gifts but does not receive them, maintains himself on corn fallen in the fields &c., is absorbed in *Nārāyaṇa*, performs *agnihotra* in the morning and evening, in *Mārgaśīrṣa* and *Jyeṣṭha* performs observances that are like the edge of a sword and attends upon his fires with herbs from a forest. These four names occur also in *Bṛhat-Parāśara* p. 290 (*Jivānanda's* ed.).

In numerous *smṛtis*, *purāṇas* and digests the duties of householders have been described in detail. For example, *vide* Gaut. V and IX, Āp. Dh. S. II. 1. 1-II. 4. 9, Vas. Dh. S. VIII. 1-17 and XI. 1-48, Manu IV, Yāj. I. 96-127, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 60-71, Dakṣa II, Vedavyāsa III, Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa 29-30 and 34, Nṛsiṃha-purāṇa 58. 45-106, Kūrmapurāṇa (*uttarārḍha* chap. 15-16), Laghu-Hārīta IV. p. 183 ff (*Jivānanda*), Droṇaparva 82, Vanaparva 2. 53-63, Āśvamedhika 45. 16-25, Anuśāsana-parva 97. Among the digests may be mentioned the Sm. C. (I. pp. 88-232), the *Smṛtyarthasāra* (pp. 18-48), the *Madanapārijāta* (pp. 204-345), the *Gṛhastharatnākara*, the *Āhnikatattva* of Raghunandana, the *Viramitrodaya* (*Āhnikaprakāśa*), the *Smṛtimuktāphala* (*Āhnikakāṇḍa*). It would be impossible to present in the space at our disposal all the details of the duties of the householder contained in the vast sources indicated above. Some of the usual, outstanding or important matters alone can be dealt with here. Some of the works contain moral exhortations to the householder. For example, the *Anuśāsana-parva*¹⁵⁰⁶ (141. 25-26)

1506. अहिंसा सत्यवचनं सर्वभूतहितं रक्षणे । शमो दानं यथाशक्ति गार्हस्थ्यो धर्म उच्यते ॥ परद्वारेष्वसंसर्गो न्यासस्त्रीपरिरक्षणम् । अदत्तादानविरमो मधुमांसस्य वर्जनम् । एष पञ्चविधो धर्मो ब्रह्मशास्त्रः सुखोदयः ॥ अनुशासनपर्व 141. 25-26.

says 'ahimsā, truthfulness, compassion towards all beings, quiescence, charity according to one's ability—this is the best dharma for a gr̥hastha (householder). Non-contact with the wives of others, guarding one's wife and deposit (made by another), abstaining from taking what is not given (by the owner), avoiding honey and meat—this five-fold dharma has many branches and gives rise to happiness.' Dakṣa (II. 66-67) also has similar provisions. But such moral exhortations (called sādharma dharmas) have already been discussed above (pp. 3-11).

From very ancient times there were several ways of dividing the day. Sometimes the word 'ahah' is distinguished from night and sometimes it stands for the period from sunrise to sunrise (and includes day and night). For example, in Rg. VI. 9. 1 we have¹⁵⁰⁷ the dark day (i. e. night) and the bright day (i. e. the period when there is light). This part (viz. the period of sunlight) is divided some times into two parts viz. pūrvāhna (period before noon) and aparāhna (the time after noon) Vide Rg. X. 34. 11, Manu III. 278. Day time is also divided into three parts, morning, midday and evening, which correspond to the three libations of Soma juice in prātahsavana, mādhyandina-savana and tṛtīya-savana. Vide Rg. III. 53. 8 where these three parts of the day are mentioned when Indra comes to drink Soma for a muhūrta each time and III. 28. 1, 4 and 5 (where all three savanas are named) and III. 32. 1, III. 52. 5-6. The day (of 12 hours) was often divided into five parts,¹⁵⁰⁸ viz. prātaḥ or udaya (sunrise), saṃgava, mādhyandina or madhyāhna (mid-day), aparāhna (afternoon) and sūyāhna or astagamana or sūyam (evening). Each of these five parts of day time will be equal to three muhūrtas. In some smṛtis and purāṇas these five parts are mentioned and defined; e. g. in the Prajāpatismṛti,

1507. अहश्च कृष्णमहर्जुनं च विवर्तेते रजसी वेद्याभिः । वैश्वानरो जायमानो न राजावातिरज्ज्योतिषाश्विस्तमांसि ॥ ऋ. VI. 9. 1. This verse is explained in the निरुक्त II. 21 'अहश्च कृष्णं रात्रिः शुक्लं च अहर्जुनम् । &c.'

1508. उता यातं संगवे प्रातरह्नो मध्यन्दिन उदिता सूर्यस्य । ऋ. V. 76. 3. Here प्रातः, संगव and मध्यन्दिन are expressly named. संगव is the time of milking the cows after they return from grazing pastures to which they were taken at dawn. Vide आश्व. श्रौ. III. 12. 1-2 प्रदोषान्तो होमकालः संगवान्तः प्रातः on which the com. says 'यस्मिन्काले गावो वत्सैः सहासते स संगवः कालः तावत्पर्यन्तं प्रातर्होमकालः'. तस्मा उद्यन्त्युर्यो हिङ्गुणोति संगवः प्रस्तौति । मध्यन्दिन उद्वायत्यपराह्नः प्रतिहरत्यस्तं यन्निधनम् ॥ अथर्ववेद IX. 5. 4-5.

vv. 156-157, Matsyapurāṇa 22. 82-84, 124. 88-90, Vāyu 50. 170-174. *Vide* Aparārka p. 465 (on Yāj. I. 226) where a *śruti* passage and verses from Vyāsa are quoted about these five parts.¹⁵⁰⁹ The whole day of twenty-four hours was divided into thirty muhūrtas; *vide* Śat. Br. XII. 3. 2. 5, S. B. E. vol. 44, p. 169 where the year is said to have 10800 muhūrtas (360 x 30). The Tai. Br. III. 10. 1 gives the names of the fifteen muhūrtas of day-time, such as Citra, Ketu &c.

The Madanapārijāta p. 496 quotes Vyāsa for the fifteen parts of the day.

The smṛtis however generally divide day-time into eight parts. Dakṣa II. 4-5 divides the day into eight parts and then treats at length about the duties to be performed during those eight parts. Kātyāyana divides day-time into eight parts and asks the king to assign three parts after the first to the investigation of judicial proceedings.¹⁵¹⁰ That this was a very ancient division follows from several considerations. Kauṭilya¹⁵¹¹ divides the day and night each into eight parts and prescribes what the king is to do in the eight parts of the day and also in the eight parts of the night. Vas. XI. 36, Laghu-Hārīta 99, Laghu-Sātātapa v. 108 say 'the sun becomes mild-rayed in the 8th part of the day and that time is called kutapa'.¹⁵¹² The Kādambari of Bāṇa (para 24) speaks of the light of the sun becoming clear and bright in the first eighth part of the day.¹⁵¹³ In the Mahābhārata frequent reference is made to the sixth part of the day as a somewhat late hour for taking one's meal (and as making one hungry). *Vide* Vanaparva 179. 16, 180. 16, 293. 9, Āśvamedhika parva 90. 26-27.¹⁵¹⁴

1509. प्रातःकालो सुहृत्स्त्रिंशत्संवस्तावदेव तु । मत्स्य 22. 82; रेखाप्रभृत्यथादित्ये त्रिमुहूर्ते गते रवौ । प्रातस्तनः स्मृतः कालो भागः सोढ्वस्तु पञ्चमः ॥ विष्णुपुराण quoted by कुल्लूक on मनु 3. 280.

1510. आद्यादह्नोऽष्टभागाद्यदूर्ध्वं भागत्रयं भवेत् । स कालो व्यवहारस्य शास्त्रदृष्टो मनीषिभिः ॥ कात्यायन quoted by अपरार्क p. 601 (on Yāj. II. 1.)

1511. नाडिकाभिरहरष्टधा रात्रिं च विभजेत् छायाप्रमाणेन वा । द्वितीये पौरजान-पदानां कार्याणि पर्येत् । अर्थशास्त्र I. 19. According to the ब्रह्मपुराण, two नाडिकास are equal to a सुहृत् 'नाडिकाभ्यामथ द्वाभ्यां सुहृत् द्विजसत्तमाः ।' The सूर्यसिद्धान्त (मध्यमाधिकार v. 12) has 'नाडीषष्ट्या तु नाक्षत्रमहोरात्रं प्रकीर्तितम् ॥'

1512. दिवसस्याष्टमे भागे मन्दीभवति भास्करः । स कालः कुतपो ज्ञेयः पितृणां दत्तम-क्षयम् ॥ वसिष्ठ XI. 36.

1513. न चिरादिव दिवसाष्टमभागभाजि स्पष्टभासि भास्वति धृते । कादम्बरी para 24.

1514. षष्ठे काले मयाहारः प्रातोऽयमनुजस्तव । वनपर्व 180. 16; षष्ठे षष्ठे तदा काले बभूव मितभोजनः । वनपर्व 293. 9.

The principal matters to be discussed under *āhnikā* are : getting up from bed, *śauca* (bodily purity), *dantadhāvana* (brushing the teeth), *snāna* (bath), *saṁdhyā*, *tarpaṇa*, the five *mahāyajñās* (including *brahmayajña* and honouring guests), attending on fire, *bhojana* (mid-day meal), obtaining wealth, studying and teaching, evening *saṁdhyā*, gifts, going to bed, performing sacrifices at certain stated times. The *Parāśara smṛti* I. 39 summarises the most important daily duties as bathing, performing the *saṁdhyā* prayers, *japa*, *homa*, worship of gods and honouring of guests, and *vaiśvadeva* are the six (principal) daily actions.¹⁵¹⁵ *Manu* (IV. 152 = *Anuśāsana parva* 104. 23) also enumerates in one place the principal daily actions that must be got through in the morning viz. answering calls of nature, toilet, bathing, brushing the teeth, applying collyrium to the eyes and worship of the gods¹⁵¹⁶.

Although as stated in the *Sūryasiddhānta*¹⁵¹⁷ the day was calculated from sunrise, daytime for practical purposes was extended for a short time before sunrise and after sunrise. According to the *Brahmavaivarta-purāṇa* the four *nāḍīs* (or *ghaṭikās*) before sunrise and the four *nāḍīs* after sunset are included in daytime (*dina*) i. e. when a man takes his bath before sunrise on a particular day that bath is one for the day that is to begin after he takes his bath¹⁵¹⁸. Several *smṛtis* like *Manu* IV. 92, *Yāj.* I. 115 enjoin that a man should get up from bed at the *brāhma muhūrta*,¹⁵¹⁹ should reflect over *dharma* and *artha* that he would seek to attain that day and over the bodily efforts that he would have to undergo for securing his object and think out the real meaning of Vedic injunctions. *Kullūka* and others say that the word *muhūrta* in *Manu* IV. 92 means

1515. संध्या स्नानं जपो होमो देवतातिथिपूजनम् । आतिथ्यं वैश्वदेवं च षड् कर्माणि दिने दिने ॥ पराशर I. 39.

1516. मैत्रं प्रसाधनं स्नानं दन्तधावनमञ्जनम् । पूर्वाह्न एव कुर्वीत देवतानां च पूजनम् ॥ मनु IV. 152. मित्र is the presiding deity over the anus and *somaitra* means *mūtrapuriṣotsarga*.

1517. उद्यादुद्ययं भानोर्भूमिसावनवासरः । सूर्यसिद्धान्त (मध्यमाधिकार v. 36.)

1518. त्रियामां रजनीं प्राहुस्त्यक्त्वाद्यन्तचतुष्टयम् । नाडीनां तदुभे संध्ये दिवसाद्यन्त-संज्ञिते ॥ ब्रह्मवैवर्तपुराण quoted in the *आह्निकतर* p. 327 and सं. प. p. 81.

1519. ब्राह्मे सुहृते बुध्येत धर्मार्थौ चावचिन्तयेत् । कायक्लेशाश्च तन्मूलान्वेदतस्वार्थमेव च ॥ मनु IV. 92; ब्राह्मो सुहृतो रात्रेः पश्चिमो यामः । ब्राह्मी भारती तत्प्रबोधहेतुत्वात् । सुहृत्-शब्दोऽत्र कालमात्रवचनः । कुल्लूक. The first half also occurs in *अनुशासनपर्व* 104. 16, *ब्रह्मपुराण* 113. 17, *सार्कण्डेयपुराण* 34. 17. The *कूर्मपुराण* as quoted in *परा. सा. I. 1. p. 220-221* has almost the same verse as मनु. Compare 'गहनमपर-रात्रमासद्विप्रसादाः कवच इव महीपाश्चिन्तन्ययर्थजातम् ॥' *शिखपालवध* 11. 6.

only time generally and not a period of two ghaṭikās and that it is called brāhma because that is a time when one's intelligence and one's power to compose a literary work are at their best. The Par. M. (I. l. p. 220)¹⁵²⁰ says that there are two muhūrtas in the half watch before sunrise, the first of the two is called brāhma and the second raudra. Pītāmaha quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 88) says that the last watch of the night is called 'brāhma muhūrta'. From very early times getting up before sunrise was prescribed specially for a student and generally for everyone. Gaut. 23. 21 says that if the sun rose while a brahmachārin was asleep he should stand up the whole day without food and mutter the Gāyatrī throughout the day (as a penance) and if the sun set while he was asleep he should sit up the whole night engaged in muttering the Gāyatrī. Āp. Dh. S. II. 5. 12. 13-14 and Manu II. 220-221 contain similar rules and they employ the word 'abhinirmukta'¹⁵²¹ (or abhinimrukta) to denote one who is asleep when the sun sets. The Gobhila-smṛti (in verse) I. 139 says that on getting up one should wash one's eyes. In the R̥gvidhāna it is ordained that on getting up one should wipe one's eyes with water after reciting R̥g. X. 73. 11 the latter half of which says 'remove away from us darkness, fulfil our eyes and release us who are as if bound with snares'.

The Sm. C. (I. p. 88) quotes the Kūrmapurāṇa to the effect that on getting up from sleep some time before sunrise one should contemplate on God. The Āhnika-prakāśa (p. 16) quotes five verses from the Vāmanapurāṇa (14. 23-27) which are to be recited on getting up as a morning hymn, one of which is quoted below.¹⁵²² These verses are repeated even now by some

1520. सूर्योदयात्प्रागर्ध्रप्रहरे द्वौ मुहूर्तौ तत्राद्यो ब्राह्मो द्वितीयो रौद्रः । परा. मा. I. part 1 p. 220. रात्रेश्च पश्चिमे यामे मुहूर्तो यस्तृतीयकः । स ब्राह्म इति विख्यातो विहितः संप्रबोधने ॥ सुमन्तु q. in आह्निकतत्त्व p. 326 ; रात्रेस्तु पश्चिमो यामो मुहूर्तो ब्राह्म उच्यते । इति पितामहस्मरणात् । स्मृतिच. I. p. 88.

1521. सूर्याग्निदितो ब्रह्मचारी तिष्ठेद्दहरमुज्जानोऽभ्यस्तमितश्च रात्रिं जपन् सावित्रीम् । गौ. 23. 21 ; 'स्वपन्नभिनिर्मुक्तो नाश्वान् वाग्यतो रात्रिमासीति श्वोभूत उदकमुपस्पृश्य वाचं विमुञ्जेत् । आप. ध. सू. II. 5. 12. 13 ; वयः सुपर्णा इत्येतां जपन्वै विन्दते श्रियम् । इत्युपक्रम्य-अक्षिणी मातरुत्थाय निमृजीतेतया सह । चक्षुष्मान्भवति श्रीमाच्चालक्ष्मीः प्रतिबाधते । इति ऋग्विधाने उक्तम् । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 19 ; वयः सुपर्णा is R̥g. X. 73. 11. This verse is explained in निरुक्त IV. 3.

1522. ब्रह्मा सुरारिखिपुरान्तकारी भातुः रुक्षी भूमिसुतो दुषश्च । गुरुश्च शुक्रः शानि-राहुकेतवः कुर्वन्तु सर्वे मम सुप्रभातम् ॥. This is वामनपुराण 14. 23. These five are quoted in आह्निकप्रकाश p. 16, आचारमयूख p. 6, स्मृतिच. (आह्निक) p. 210 (where they are ascribed to दक्ष).

old people. Some works say that he who repeats the four verses called Bhāratasāvitrī in the morning obtains the reward of hearing the whole Mahābhārata and attains the highest Brahma.¹⁵²³ The Āhnikatattva (p. 327) quotes a verse to be repeated on getting up from bed in which the serpent Karkoṭaka, Damayanti, kings Nala and Rtu-parṇa are remembered for removing the effects of Kali,¹⁵²⁴ and the Smṛtimuktāphala quotes a verse about Nala, Yudhiṣṭhira, Sitā and Kṛṣṇa as *puṇyaśloka* (singing of whose glory is holy)¹⁵²⁵. The Ācāra-ratna (p. 10 a) states that one should repeat the names of certain famous and long-lived (cīrajīvins) personages viz. Aśvatthāman, Bali, Vyāsa, Hanūmān, Bibhiṣaṇa, Kṛpa, Paraśurāma and Mārkaṇḍeya and also the names of five holy women, Ahalyā, Draupadī, Sitā, Tārā and Mandodarī. Even now old men brought up in the orthodox ways repeat these names on getting up.

In some works it is said that if on getting up a man sees a brāhmaṇa learned in the Veda, a lady whose husband is living, a cow, an altar where fire is kindled, he becomes free from adversities and that if a man sees on getting up in the morning a very sinful man, a widow, an untouchable, one naked, one whose nose is cut off, that is an indication of *kali* (misfortune or strife).¹⁵²⁶ Parāśara XII. 47 says that one who has built the fire altar (for Vedic sacrifices), a dark-brown cow, one who is engaged in a *sattra* (or performed it), the king, an ascetic, the ocean—these purify a man the moment they are seen, so one should see them always.

Then the next act is to answer the calls of nature. Very detailed rules are laid down about these even in the most ancient sūtras and smṛtis. Many of the rules are simply hygienic, but as religion, rules of law, of morality, of health and

1523. Vide नित्याचारपद्धति pp. 15-16, आह्निकप्रकाश p. 21. These verses viz. महाभारत, स्वर्गारोहणिक पर्व 5. 60-63, are called भारतसावित्री (in verse 64). Their first pādas are मातापितृसहस्राणि, हर्षस्थानसहस्राणि, ऊर्ध्वबाहुर्विरौम्येष, न जातु कामाक्ष भयाक्ष लोभाद्.

1524. कर्कोटकस्य नागस्य दमयन्त्या नलस्य च । क्रतुपर्णस्य राजर्षेः कीर्तनं कलिनाशनम् ॥ महाभारत, वनपर्व 79. 10, quoted in आह्निकतत्त्व p. 327 and स्मृतिषु. (आह्निक) p. 211.

1525. पुण्यश्लोको नलो राजा पुण्यश्लोको युधिष्ठिरः । पुण्यश्लोका च वेदैही पुण्यश्लोको जनार्दनः ॥ quoted in स्मृतिषु. (आह्निक p. 210), आचारमयूख p. 6.

1526. These verses are from गोभिलस्मृति II. 163 and 165 (called कर्मपदीप also) quoted in आह्निकतत्त्व p. 327, आह्निकप्र. p. 22, स्मृतिषु. (आह्निक) p. 211. I read पापिष्ठं दुर्भयामन्त्यं (and not मय्यं or मर्त्यं as these do).

hygiene are mixed up in the ancient works, they are given in works on dharma. Even in the Atharvaveda (XIII. 1. 56) it¹⁵²⁷ is said 'I cut off thy root who kick a cow with the foot or who urinate opposite the sun (facing the sun); thou shall not further cast a shadow.' Urinating while standing seems to have been condemned in the time of the Atharvaveda; *vide* VII. 102 (107). 1 'I shall urinate standing erect; let not the lords harm me.' Gaut. IX. 13, 15, 37-43, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 15-30 and I. 11. 31. 1-3, Vas. Dh. S. VI. 10-19 and XII. 11-13, Manu IV. 45-52, 56, 151, Yāj. I. 16-17, 134, 154, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 60. 1-26, Śaṅkha,¹⁵²⁸ Vāyupurāṇa 78. 59-64 and 79. 25-31, Vāmanapurāṇa 14. 30-32 may be summarised as follows: one should not void urine or ordure on the road, on ashes, on cow-dung, in ploughed or sown fields, under the shade of trees, in rivers or water, on grassy or beautiful spots, on bricks made ready for erecting altars, on mountain-tops, near dilapidated shrines or cowpens, on ant-hills, in cemeteries or in holes, on threshing floors, on sandy shores. Nor should one answer calls of nature looking at or facing fire, the sun, the moon, a brāhmaṇa, water, the image of some god, cow, wind. Nor should one do these acts on the bare ground, but on ground covered with dry twigs or leaves or grass or loose earth. One should cover one's head and should face the north by day or when there is twilight and face the south at night, but when there is a danger one may face any direction. One should not urinate while standing or walking (Manu. IV. 47) nor should one speak while doing so.¹⁵²⁹ One should answer calls of nature away from a human habitation towards the south or south-west. Manu V. 126 and Yāj. I. 17 prescribe that, after answering calls of nature, one should perform cleansing the parts with water held in a pot and lumps of earth to such an extent that no smell or filth will stick. According to Manu V. 136 and 137 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 60. 25-26 one lump of earth is to be applied to the penis, three to the arms, ten to the left hand

1527. यश्च गां पदा स्फुरति प्रत्यङ्गं सूर्यं च मेहति । तस्य वृश्चामि ते मूलं न च्छायां करोऽपरम् ॥ अथर्व XIII. 1. 56; मेहयास्यूर्ध्वस्तिष्ठन्मा मा हिंसिपुरीश्वराः ॥ अथर्व VII. 102 (107). 1.

1528. न गोमयकुण्डोत्तशाद्बलचित्ति-श्मशान-बल्मीक-वर्मखलगोष्ठबिलपर्वतपुलिनेषु मेहेत सृताधारत्वात् । शङ्ख quoted in मिता on या. I. 134.

1529. उच्चारं मेथुने चैव प्रस्रावे दन्तधावने । स्नाने भोजनकाले च षडह मौनं समाचरेत् ॥ हारीत quoted in आह्निकप्रकाश p. 26. This is लघुहारीत verse 40; अत्रि 323 is पुरीषे मेथुने होमे प्रस्रावे दन्तधावने । स्नानभोजनजप्येषु सदा मौनं समाचरेत् ॥

and seven to both hands, three to both feet together. This is the extent of *śauca* required for householders, and for brahmācārin, forest hermit and śannyāsīn, twice, thrice and four times as much is required. The Mit. on Yāj. I. 17 remarks that for all āśramas the cleansing required is only as much as will remove foul smell and filth and the several numbers of lumps of earth prescribed in different smṛtis are only prescribed for unseen (or spiritual) results. Gaut. I. 45-46, Vas. III. 48 and Manu V. 134 say that cleansing of the body is to be so effected first with water and then with earth that foul smell and filth will be totally removed. Devala (quoted in the Gr. R. p. 147) says that respectable people do not emphasize the number of times mentioned in the smṛtis, but they say that cleansing should be carried on till one feels that it is all right.¹⁵³⁰ The Smṛtyarthasāra¹⁵³¹ (p. 19) following Dakṣa V. 12 says that at night only half of the *śauca* prescribed for the day is required, only one-fourth of it is prescribed for the ailing and only one-eighth when a man is on a journey and that no special number of lumps of earth are prescribed for women, śūdras, boys whose upanayana has not been performed. In cleansing one is not to employ stones, clods of earth, and green twigs cut off for the purpose from herbs and trees (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 30, Gaut. IX. 15) nor is one to use earth from inside a river or water reservoir or from a temple, from an ant-hill or from the hiding places of rats or from dung-hills or what is left after being used for a prior cleansing (Vas. Dh. S. VI. 17) nor what is taken from a road or cemetery, nor should one use earth that has worms, coals, or bones or gravel in it. Dakṣa V. 7 prescribes that for the first time as much earth as will fill half of the outstretched hand and for the second time half of that is to be taken and so on.¹⁵³² The lump of earth should not be bigger than a myrobalan fruit (Kūrmapurāṇa in Sm. C. I. p. 182). One is not to answer calls of nature with the shoes on (Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 18) and one's *yajñopavīta* should be suspended from the right ear or he should throw it on his

1530. यावत्साधिवति मन्येत तावच्छौचं विधीयते । प्रमाणं शौचसंख्यायां न सिद्धैरुपदिश्यते ॥ देवल in गृह. र. p. 147 and स्मृतिच० I. p. 93.

1531. Vide विश्वरूप on या. I. 17 बल्मीकाखूत्करोत्या वा जलात् पाथि कृता च या । कृतशौचावशिष्टा च षड्भिः शौचं न विद्यते ॥ ; also मार्कण्डेयपुराण-34. 65-66, स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 19.

1532. अर्धप्रसूतिमात्रा तु प्रथमा स्मृतिका स्मृता । द्वितीया च तृतीया च तद्वर्धा प्रकीर्तिता ॥ दक्ष V. 7. The first half is quoted even by विश्वरूप on या. I. 17.

back in the *nivāta* form.¹⁵³³ According to Yāj. I. 16 the *yajñopavīta* should be suspended from the right ear only. Vanaparva 59. 2 describes that *kālī* (the principle of evil and strife) entered Nala when the latter did not wash his feet after urinating.

This cleansing of the body in the morning is only a part of general *śauca*. *Śauca* is according to Gaut. VIII. 24 one of the *ātmagunās*. Even the Rg. (in VII. 56. 12 and other verses) appears to emphasize cleanliness (*śucitva*).¹⁵³⁴ According to Hārīta 'śauca is the first path to *dharma*, it is the resting place of brahma (Veda), the abode of *śrī* (prosperity), the means of clearing (or soothing) the mind, the favourite of gods, the means of realizing the *Ātman* and the awakener of intelligence.'¹⁵³⁵ According to Baud. Dh. S. III. 1. 26, Hārīta, Dakṣa V. 3 and Vyāghrapāda (quoted in Sm. C. I. p. 93) *śauca* is of two kinds,¹⁵³⁶ *bāhya* (outward) and *āntara* or *ābhyantara* (inward), the first being effected by water and loose earth and the latter is the purity of one's sentiments. Hārīta divides the first into three, that of *kula* (being free from impurity due to birth or death in the family), of *artha* (i. e. of the vessels and things to be used in all matters) and of *śarīra* (cf. one's body); Hārīta divides *ābhyantara* into five, *mānasa* (mental), *cākṣuṣa* (of the eye i. e. not looking at things that should not be looked at), *ghrāṇya* (of the nose), *vācya* (of speech), *svādya* (of the tongue). According to a verse quoted by Haradatta on Gaut. VIII. 24 *śauca* is of four kinds, viz. of *dravya* (the vessels and things employed by one), of the mind, of speech and of the body. Vṛddha-Gautama (Jivānanda p. 632) speaks of five kinds of *śauca* viz. of the mind, of actions, of *kula* (family), of the body and of speech. According to Manu V. 135, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 22. 81, Atri v. 31 and others there are twelve *malas* (filthy exudations or impurities) of the human body, viz. fat, semen, blood, marrow, urine, faeces, mucus of the nose, ear-wax, phlegm, tears,

1533. अङ्गिरा अपि । कृत्वा यज्ञोपवीतं तु पृष्ठतः कण्ठलम्बितम् । विष्णुवं तु सूचीं कुर्याद् यद्वा कर्णे समाहितः । कर्णे निधानमेकवस्त्रविषयम् । तथा च सांख्यायनशुद्धम् । यद्येकवस्त्रो यज्ञोपवीतं कर्णे कृत्वा सूत्रपुरीषोत्सर्गं कुर्यात् इति । स्मृतिच. I. p. 89. Vide शाङ्खायनशुद्ध IV. 12. 22 (S. B. E. vol 29 p. 126).

1534. शुची वो हस्या मरुतः शुचीनां शुचिं दिनोम्यध्वरं शुचिभ्यः । ऋतेन सत्यमृत-साप आयञ्जुचिजन्मानः शुचयः पावकाः ॥ ऋ. VII. 56. 12.

1535. तत्र हारीतः । शौचं नाम धर्मादिपथो ब्रह्मायतनं श्रियोधिवासो मनसः प्रसादनं देवानां मियं ऋरिरे क्षेत्रदर्शनं बुद्धिप्रबोधनम् । शुद्ध. र. p. 522.

1536. शौचं च द्विविधं शौकं बाह्यमाभ्यन्तरं तथा । सूजलाभ्यां स्मृतं बाह्यं भावशुद्धि-स्तथान्तरम् ॥ दक्ष V. 3 and ग्यात्रपाद.

rheum of eyes, sweat; and the first six of these are removed by water and earth and the latter six by water (Atri v. 32).

After performing *śauca* one has to rinse the mouth with twelve mouthfuls (*gaṇḍūṣa*) of water (vide *Smṛtimuktāphala*, *āhnika* p. 220). When one finishes the purification of the body by washing the hands and feet and by rinsing the mouth one has to engage in *ācamana*.¹⁵³⁷ A good deal has been said about *ācamana* above (pp. 315-316) under *upanayana*. *Ācamana* (sipping water) is to be done after tying the top-knot and tucking up the garment from behind ; the water is to be poured in the hollowed palm of the hand in such a quantity that a grain of *māṣa* (bean) will be plunged in it and the three fingers except the thumb and the small one are to be joined together and the water is to be drunk from that part of the hand which is called *brāhma tīrtha* described above (n. 750). The word *tīrtha* means that part of the right hand by which water is taken in or poured in religious rites and the parts are given the names of deities for lauding them, as *Viśvarūpa* says.¹⁵³⁸ In most *smṛtis* their number is four, viz. *prājāpatya* or *kāya*, *pitrya*, *brāhma*, and *daiva* (for example in *Manu* II. 59, *Viṣṇu Dh. S.* 62. 1-4, *Yāj. I.* 19, *Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa* 34. 103-109, *Dakṣa* II. 18). Some works like the *Śatyāyanakalpa* and *Vṛddha-Vasiṣṭha* quoted by *Viśvarūpa* on *Yāj. I.* 19 name five *tīrthas* viz. *daiva* (when a *brāhmaṇa* faces the east, the front part of his hand), *pitrya* (the right portion of the right hand), *brāhma* (the portion of the hand opposite the fingers), *prājāpatya* (the portion of the hand near the small finger) and *pārameṣṭhya* (the centre of the right palm). The *Pār. gr. pariśiṣṭa* names the above five, except that it substitutes the name *āgneya* for *pārameṣṭhya*. The *Śaṅkha-smṛti* (in verse, X. 1-2) distinguishes *kāya* and *prājāpatya* and omits the name of *brāhma* altogether, which is called *prājāpatya* by it. *Vaik. I.* 5 has six, the usual four, the fifth being *āgneya* (centre of the palm) and the sixth being *ārṣa* (the roots and tips of all fingers together). According to some, *daiva tīrtha* means the tips of the fingers and the centre of the palm is either *saumya* or *āgneya*. According to *Hārīta* the

1537. तत्र हस्तौ पादौ प्रक्षालय यज्ञोपवीती छुद्रभूमौ पादौ प्रतिष्ठाप्य बद्धकच्छशिखः
शुण्डीकाक्षमिष्टदेवतां स्मृत्वा प्रकृतिस्थं फेनबुद्बुदरहितं संहताङ्गुलिपाणिनाऽम्बु गृहीत्वाऽङ्गु-
ष्ठकनिष्ठिके मुक्त्वा शेषं वीक्षितं ब्रह्मतीर्थेन त्रिश्चतुर्वारं समाहितः पिबेत् । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 20.

1538. तीर्थमिति च दक्षिणहस्तेऽवतारप्रदेशनामधेयम् । लोकेऽप्युद्धाद्यवतारे तीर्थ-
शब्दः प्रसिद्धः । तानि च विशेषकार्योपपत्तिवात् स्तुत्यर्थं देवताभिराख्यायन्ते । विश्वरूप on
या. I. 19.

daiva¹⁵³⁹ tirtha is to be used in mārjana, worship of gods, offering of *bali* and in *bhojana*; the kāya tirtha is to be employed in lājahoma (homa of fried grain) and daily homa, the pitrya in all rites for dead ancestors. Touching the kamaṇḍalu (water jar), eating curds and fresh products of the fields (navāṇṇa) are to be done with the saumya tirtha (Smṛtyarthasāra p. 20). When there is difficulty of getting water and an occasion for purification by ācamana arises, one should touch one's right¹⁵⁴⁰ ear. Very elaborate rules are laid down in the digests on the subject of ācamana (e. g. Sm. C. I. pp. 95-104), Smṛtimuktāphala, Āhnika-prakāśa pp. 221-240, Āhnika-tattva pp. 333-344. Gr. R. pp. 150-172 &c., which have to be all passed over for want of space. One matter to be noticed is that according to the Āpastamba-smṛti (in verse) the procedure of ācamana is of four kinds, viz. paurāṇika (in which each sipping of water is accompanied by the names, Keśava, Nārāyaṇa, Mādhava &c.); smārta (as laid down in the smṛtis like Manu II. 60 ff), āgama (i. e. taught in the sacred books of Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava sectarians) and śrauta (laid down in the Śrautasūtras for Vedic sacrifices¹⁵⁴¹). The first of these four is the method usually followed now by most brāhmaṇas.

Danta-dhāvana (brushing the teeth).

Danta-dhāvana comes after śauca and ācamana and before snāna (bath). *Vide* Yāj. I. 98 and Dakṣa II. 6. The practice of daily danta-dhāvana has existed in India from the most ancient times. The Tai. S.¹⁵⁴² (II. 5. 1. 7) when enumerating the actions which a *rajasvalā* (a woman in her monthly period) was to avoid mentions *dantadhāvana* among them and remarks that if she indulges in it during that period, she gives birth to a son whose teeth are naturally black. Dantadhāvana is an independent act by itself performed for rendering the body (here the mouth) clean and it is not an āṅga (a subordinate

1539. तत्र हारीतः । मार्जनाच्चनवलिकर्मभोजनानि दैवेन तीर्थेन कुर्यात् । इति । दैवं तीर्थमङ्गुल्यग्रम् । स्मृतिच. I. p. 226.

1540. आपस्तु नैमित्तिककर्माङ्गाचमनस्थाने अवगम्यार्शनं स्यान्मनःशुद्धयर्थम् । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 21.

1541. आपस्तम्बस्मृतौ । आदौ पौराणिकं प्रोक्तं स्मार्तमागममेव च । श्रौतं चतुर्विधं प्राहुराचारं ब्रह्मवादिनः ॥ अच्युताद्यैः समाचारैर्केशवाद्यैस्तु नामभिः । अङ्गानां स्पर्शनं कुयदित्यपौराणिकं मतम् ॥ स्मृतिशु. (आह्निक) p. 221.

1542. या दन्तो धावते तस्यै श्यावदन् । तै. सं. II. 5. 1. 7.

constituent part) of bath or morning prayer.¹⁵⁴³ Āp. Dh. S. I. 2. 8. 5 forbids¹⁵⁴⁴ one who has returned from his teacher's home after finishing his studies to engage in the sight of his teacher in such acts of pleasure as cleansing the teeth, shampooing the body and combing the hair and also forbids the study of the Veda while such actions are going on (*ibid.* I. 3. 11. 10-12).¹⁵⁴⁵ The brahmachārin was not to engage in the leisurely actions of brushing the teeth (but was to rinse his mouth) according to Gaut. II. 19 and Vas. Dh. S. VII. 15.

In dantadhāvana one has to take the twig (with its bark) of certain trees, crush the end of the twig with his teeth so as to make a brush of it and then to cleanse his teeth with the brush-like end. According to Gobhilasamṛti¹⁵⁴⁶ (which is also called Chandoga-pariśiṣṭa in some works) if a man only rinses his mouth with river water or at home, he has not to repeat a mantra, but if he uses a twig he has to repeat a mantra 'Oh tree, bestow on me long life, strength, fame, brilliance, offspring, cattle, wealth, brahma (Veda), memory and intelligence.' In the Pār. gr. II. 6 and Āp. gr. 12. 6 brushing of the teeth with an *udumbara* twig is prescribed in Samāvartana with a mantra 'may you be ready for food; here comes the king Soma; may he clean my mouth with glory and good luck.'¹⁵⁴⁷ Therefore the same mantra is to be employed every day after samāvartana. In some of the digests (like the Āhnikaprakāśa

1543. अत्र संध्यायां स्नाने च दन्तधावनस्य नाङ्गत्वम् । मुखे पर्युषिते नित्यं भवत्य-
प्रयतो नरः । तस्मात्सर्वप्रयत्नेन भक्षयेद्दन्तधावनम् ॥ इति वृद्धशातातपवचनेन स्वतन्त्रस्यैव
शुद्धिहेतुयाभिधानात् । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 121; the verse मुखे पर्युषिते is लघु-
शातातप 74.

1544. स्वैरिकर्मसु च यथा दन्तप्रक्षालनोत्सादनावलेखनानीति । आप. ध.
I. 2. 8. 4-5; vide आप. ध. सू. I. 3. 11. 10-11 for the same words followed
by तावन्तं कालं नाधीयीताध्यापयेद्वा.

1545. खट्वाशयनदन्तधावनप्रक्षालनाञ्जनाभ्यञ्जनोपानच्छत्रवर्जम् । वसिष्ठ VII. 15.

1546. दन्तान् प्रक्षाल्य नद्यादौ गृहे चेतदमन्त्रवत् । नारदाद्युक्तवार्धं यदष्टाङ्गुलम्
पातितम् । सत्त्वचं दन्तकाष्ठं स्यात्तदग्रेण प्रधावयेत् ॥ परिजप्य च मन्त्रेण भक्षयेद्दन्त-
धावनम् ॥ आयुर्बलं यशो वर्चः प्रजां पशून् वसूनि च । ब्रह्म प्रजां च मेधां च त्वं नो देहि वन-
स्पते ॥ गोभिलस्त्वृति I. 137-140. This मन्त्र is quoted by the मिता on याज्ञ.
I. 98 and by almost all digests on धर्मशास्त्र.

1547. औदुम्बरेण दन्तान्धावेत् । अन्नाद्याय व्यूहध्वं सोमो राजायमागमत् । स मे मुखं
प्रमाहर्षते यशसा च भगेन च । इति । दन्तप्रक्षालनादीनि नित्यम् । पारस्कर II. 6.
The मन्त्र 'अन्नाद्याय' occurs in आप. म. पा. II. 7. 19 with variations.
सोम is the king of plants and hence the *udumbara* twig is called 'this
king Soma'.

pp. 121-122) it is stated that that mantra may be employed by the students of the Śukla Yajurveda, while those who study the Gobhila gr̥hya may use the mantra 'āyurbalam &c'.

Very detailed rules are laid down about the length of the twig, about the trees the twigs of which are allowed or forbidden, about the days or occasions or times on which there is to be no dantadhāvana. A few of these details are given below. Trees having thorns on their trunk or from which a milky fluid oozes out when a twig is broken off are allowed and so are vaṭa, asana, arka, khadira, karañja, badara, sarja, nimba, arimeda, apāmarga, mālatī, kakubha, bilva, āmra (mango), punnāga, śirīṣa and further the twig must be astringent, pungent or bitter in taste and not sweet or sour.¹⁵⁴⁸ Vide Br̥hat-Saṁhitā of Varāhamihira chap. 85, Laghu-Hārīta (Jivānanda part I. p. 183), Laghu-Vyāsa I. 17-18, Nṛsīmhapurāṇa 58. 47. Before the advent of the modern dentrifices people in India followed these directions and even now many even in the cities still follow them and brush their teeth with twigs of various trees. Among the trees which are not to be used for dantadhāvana are palāśa,¹⁵⁴⁹ śleṣmātaka, ariṣṭa, vibhītaka, dhava, bandhūka, nirguḍī, śigru, tilva, tinduka, inguda, guggulu, śamī, pīlu, pippala, kovidāra &c. (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 61. 1-5). The twig may be undried or dried, but one dried on the tree itself is not to be taken (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 61. 8, Nṛsīmhapurāṇa 58. 46). One must brush the teeth facing north or east, but not west or south (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 61. 12-13). Viṣṇu Dh. S. (61. 16-17) prescribes that the twig should be as big as the end of one's small finger and twelve *āṅgulas* in length and it should be washed before its use and after using it it should not be cast off in an impure place. There are various opinions about the length of the twig employed. The Nṛsīmhapurāṇa (58. 49. 50) says that it may be of eight *āṅgulas* in length or a

1548. वृक्षासनार्कखादिरकरञ्जदूरसर्जनिम्बारिमेदापामार्गमालतीककुभविल्वानामन्यतमम् । कषायं तिक्तं कटुकं च । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 61. 14-15; आम्नपालाशविल्वानामपामार्गशिरीषयोः । खादिरस्य करञ्जस्य कटुत्वस्य तथैव च ॥ अर्कस्य करवीरस्य कुटजस्य विशेषतः ॥ वाग्यतः प्रातरुत्थाय भक्षयेदन्तधावनम् ॥ माण्डूकीशिक्षा of अथर्ववेद (ed. by Bhagavad-datta, Lahore) IV. 1-2; सर्वे कण्टकिनः पुण्याः क्षीरिणश्च यशस्विनः । नारदः; आम्नयुजाग-विल्वानामपामार्गशिरीषयोः । भक्षयेत् प्रातरुत्थाय वाग्यतो दन्तधावनम् । अङ्गिरसः. All these are quoted in the स्मृतिच० I. pp. 105-106 and other digests. 'सर्वे कण्टकिनः ... यशस्विनः' is दृशिहपुराण 58. 49.

1549. पालाशमासनं पाण्डुके दन्तधावनमिति च वर्जयेत् । गौतम IX. 44, आप. ध. सू. I. 11. 32. 9 (reads दन्तप्रक्षालनं), वसिष्ठ XII. 34., बौ. ध. सू. II. 3. 30.

span in length (prādeśa); Garga (quoted in Sm. C. I. p. 105) says that the twig should be 10, 9, 8, 7 or 4 angulas in length respectively for the four varnas and women. One was not to cleanse one's teeth with pieces of brick or with clods of earth or with stones or with the bare fingers (except the thumb and the finger next to the small finger).¹⁵⁵⁰

According to Laghu-Hārīta (Jivānanda I. p. 183) and Nṛsimhapurāṇa 58. 50-52 there is to be no brushing of the teeth with a twig on the 1st *tithi*, the parva tithis (i. e. new moon, full moon, 8th day, 14th day and the day on which the Sun enters a new zodiacal sign, according to Viṣṇu-purāṇa III. 11. 118), on the 6th tithi and 9th tithi and on those days when twigs are not available one may rinse one's mouth with twelve mouthfuls of water¹⁵⁵¹. Paithinasi (quoted in the Sm. C. I. p. 106) says 'one may brush one's teeth with grass, leaves and water and with the fingers except the 4th finger.' One may also cleanse with mouthfuls of water when one has no teeth (Āhnika-prakāśa, p. 127). One may also rub one's tongue with these or with a twig on the days on which it is allowed. There is to be no dantadhāvana on śrāddha day (for the performer), on the day of a sacrifice, when one is observing *niyama*, when the husband has gone to another country, when there is indigestion, on marriage day, on a fast or a vrata (Smṛtyarthasāra p. 25). Viṣṇu¹⁵⁵² Dh. S. 61. 16 prescribes dantadhāvana not only in the morning but also after taking one's meal. This, as stated by Devala, is intended for removing particles of food sticking to the teeth or the gums.

Snāna.—After dantadhāvana comes snāna. As ācamana, snāna (bath), japa (muttering of holy Vedic texts), homa and

1550. यदाह वृद्धयाज्ञवल्क्यः । इष्टकालोष्टपाषाणैरितराङ्गुलिभिस्तदा । मुक्त्वा चानामिकाङ्गुष्ठौ न कुर्याद्वन्तधावनम् ॥ स्मृतिच. I. p. 106 ; vide लघुशातातप v. 73.

1551. प्रतिपत्तर्वषष्टीषु नवम्यां चैव सप्तमाः । दन्तानां काष्ठसंयोगाद्दहत्या सप्तमं कुलम् ॥ अभावे दन्तकाष्ठानां प्रतिषिद्धदिनेषु च । अपां द्वादशमण्डपैर्मुखमुद्धिं समान्वरेत् । लघुहारीत, वृत्तिहपुराण 58. 50-52; vide लघुवाग्भलायन I. 14-15, स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 25; अनुशासन 127. 4 condemns the use of a twig on the new moon day.

1552. प्रातर्मुक्त्वा च यतवाग्भक्षयेद्वन्तधावनम् ॥ विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 61. 16; एतेन प्रातःकाले भोजनोत्तरं दन्तलग्ननिर्हरणार्थं भोजने दन्तलग्नानि निर्हृत्याचमनं चरेदिति देवलस्वरसास्त्रिभूमिपि दन्तधावनं कार्यम् । आह्निकम्. p. 125. The अष्टाङ्गसंग्रह I. 3 also recommends this 'प्रातर्मुक्त्वा च यतवाग्भक्षयेद्वन्तधावनम् ॥'. Vide Journal of the American Oriental Society, vol. 52 (for 1932) p. 163 ff for references to the twigs used for brushing teeth from ancient Buddhist works and Fa Hien's 'Record of Buddhist kingdoms' (Legge p. 54) for the dantakāṣṭha of Buddha.

other rites are to be performed after holding kuśa grass in the right hand some remarks must be offered on kuśas. The Kūrmapurāṇa says 'whatever action is done without darbha or without yajñopavīta, it becomes useless and brings no reward here or in the next world' (quoted in Kṛtyaratnākara p. 47). Śātātapa¹⁵⁵³ says 'in japa, homa, dāna, svādhyāya (study of the Veda) or in pītṛtarpaṇa one should have in his hand gold, silver and kuśas'. One should have at the time of ācamana &c. a pavitra (a ring-like loop) of darbhas in his right hand or in both his hands on the finger next to the small one or have kuśa in his right hand. There were several views about wearing a pavitra or darbhas, as stated in note 1553. The darbha grass is to be collected on the darśa day (new moon) in the month of Śrāvaṇa and the darbhas so collected are never stale and may be used again and again¹⁵⁵⁴. The pavitra of the four varṇas should be made with 4 darbhas or with 3, 2, or 1 respectively or it should be made with two darbhas for all (Smṛtyarthasāra pp. 36-37). Those darbha blades from which no further blades shoot forth are called simply darbhas, blades from which fresh ones sprout forth are called kuśas, blades with their roots are called kutapas and those the tips of which are cut off are called *trṇa*¹⁵⁵⁵ (grass). The darbha grass growing in a field of sesame and having seven blades is very auspicious.

The darbhas to be used in yajñas should be green in colour, yellowish for use in *pākayajñas*, they should be with roots when used in rites for the pītṛs and variegated when used in vaiśva-deva. Those darbhas that were held in the hand at the time of offering pīndas to the dead or in śrāddhas or in pītṛtarpaṇa or at the time of urination or voiding faeces should be thrown away (Smṛtyarthasāra p. 37). If kuśa grass is not available, then kāśa or dūrvā may be employed instead.

1553. शातातपः । जपे होमे तथा दाने स्वाध्याये पितृतर्पणे । अशून्यं तु करं कुर्यात्सु-
वर्णरजतैः कुशैः ॥ स्मृतिच. I. p. 108; vide स्मृत्यर्थसार for a similar verse. अत्र
चत्वारः पक्षाः । हस्तद्वये दर्भधारणम् । हस्तद्वये पवित्रधारणं दक्षिणे पवित्रं वामे कुशा दक्षिण
एवोभयमिति । आचाररत्न p. 24 b. Vide गोभिलस्मृति I. 28 quoted by अपरार्क
pp. 43 and 480.

1554. मासे नभस्यमावास्या तस्यां दर्भोद्धृत्यो मतः । अयातयामास्ते दर्भा नियोज्याः
स्युः पुनः पुनः ॥ हारीत quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 107. Vide स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 36,
लिखितस्मृति v. 41, मरीचि quoted in कृत्यरत्नाकर p. 67.

1555. अमसृताः स्मृता दर्भाः प्रसृतास्तु कुशाः स्मृताः । समूलाः कुतपाः प्रोक्ताश्चिन्ना-
(शास्त्रणसंज्ञिताः ॥ बृहद्हारीत VII. 44; this is quoted as कौशिक's in स्मृतिच
• I p. 108.) and as of कात्यायन in स्मृतिच. (आह्निक p. 231.)

The subject of snāna can be treated from various points of view. Snāna¹⁵⁵⁶ is either *mukhya* (principal) or *gauna* (secondary), the first being a bath with water and the second being without water. Each of these is again subdivided into various kinds. According to Dakṣa II. 48 snāna is *nitya* (obligatory every day), *naimittika* (to be performed on certain occasions), and *kāmya* (to be performed only if one desires certain rewards). All the varṇas¹⁵⁵⁷ have to bathe in or with water every day the whole body together with the head also (Baud. Dh. S. II. 4. 4, Manu II. 176 and IV. 82) and *dvijātis* have to do it with Vedic mantras. This is *nitya*. This¹⁵⁵⁸ is required to be done, because a man who has not bathed is not entitled to perform homa, japa and other rites (Śaṅkha VIII. 2, Dakṣa II. 9). The body is dirty and from it ooze various exudations day and night and a bath in the morning cleanses and purifies the body. In this way snāna has seen and unseen (i. e. spiritual) results¹⁵⁵⁹.

Some works (Yāj. I. 95, 100, Laghu-Āśvalāyana I. 16, 75, Dakṣa II. 9 and 43 &c.), prescribe two baths a day for brāhmaṇa house-holders, one before day-break and another at noon. There is only one bath a day for brahmacārins, two for forest hermits (Manu VI. 6). According to Manu VI. 22 and Yāj. III. 48 the forest hermit has to bathe thrice (in the morning, at noon and in the evening) and a *yati* has also to bathe thrice¹⁵⁶⁰. Though even now some orthodox brāhmaṇa householders do perform two baths a day, the usual rule for all Hindus (including even the so-called untouchables) is to bathe once a day, which also has

1556. स्नानं तु द्विविधं प्रोक्तं गणशुद्ध्यपमेदतः । तयोस्तु वारुणं मुख्यं तत्पुनः षड्विधं भवेत् ॥ नित्यं नैमित्तिकं काम्यं क्रियाङ्गं मलकर्षणम् । क्रियास्नानं तथा षष्ठं षोढा स्नानं प्रकीर्तितम् ॥ quoted by अपरार्क p. 127, मद्. पा. 236, स्मृतिच० I. p. 110, गृह. र. pp. 200-201, परा. मा. I. 1. p. 268. The 2nd verse is शङ्खस्मृति VIII. 1.

1557. अपोवगाहनं स्नानं विहितं सार्ववर्णिकम् । मन्त्रबलोक्षणं चापि द्विजातीनां विशिष्यते ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 4. 4; स्नानं च सर्ववर्णानां कार्यं शौचपुरःसरम् । समन्त्रकं द्विजानां स्यात्स्त्रीशूद्राणाममन्त्रकम् ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 26.

1558. अस्नातस्तु पुमास्त्रार्हो जप्याग्निहवनदिषु । प्रातःस्नानं तदर्थं च नित्यस्नानं प्रकीर्तितम् ॥ शङ्ख VIII. 2 quoted in अपरार्क p. 127.

1559. अत्यन्तमलिनः कायो नवच्छिद्रसमन्वितः । स्रवत्येष दिवा रात्रौ प्रातःस्नानं विशोधनम् ॥ प्रातःस्नानं प्रशंसन्ति दृष्टादृष्टकरं हि तत् । सर्वमर्हति शुद्धात्मा प्रातःस्नायी जपादिकम् ॥ दक्ष II. 7 and 9 quoted in अपरार्क p. 125 and स्मृतिच. I. p. 111.

1560. प्रातर्मध्याह्नयोः स्नानं वानप्रस्थगृहस्थयोः । यत्स्नोषवर्णं प्रोक्तं सकृत्तु ब्रह्मचारिणः ॥ दक्ष quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 181 and स्मृत्यर्थसार. p. 26; उभे संध्ये तु स्नातव्यं ब्राह्मणैस्तु गृहस्थैः । तिसृष्वपि च संध्यासु स्नातव्यं च तपस्विभिः ॥ योगियाङ्ग वल्क्य quoted in गृह. र. p. 191.

been the general rule for centuries (vide Smṛtyarthasāra p. 26 'sarve vāpi sakṛt kuryur'). Snāna is usually done now before noon, that in the early morning being done only by a *yati*, one observing a *vrata*, a brahmachārin, sacrificial priests, students of the Veda and those engaged in austerities (Smṛtyarthasāra p. 27). The morning bath is to be taken immediately after brushing the teeth before day-break when one sees the eastern direction lit up by the morning rays of the rising sun (Viṣṇu ¹⁵⁶¹ Dh. S. 64. 8). Gobhila-smṛti (II. 24) says that ¹⁵⁶² one should not lengthen out the process of taking the morning bath (by repeating too many mantras) as it would come in the way of performing the morning homa at the proper time, which is between the first appearance of light and the sun's reaching about one cubit above the eastern horizon (Gobhila I. 122-123). Vide Manu II. 15 also. The mādhyāhna (midday) bath is to be performed in the fourth part of the day-time divided into eight parts (Dakṣa II. 43, Laghu-Vyāsa II. 9) and one has to bring together loose earth, cow-dung, flowers, whole rice grains, kuśas, sesame and sandalwood paste ¹⁵⁶³. This midday bath is not to be performed by one who is ill. The third bath (in the case of forest hermits and yatis) is to be performed before sunset, but not after sun-set or at night. No bathing is allowed for any one at night except when there is an eclipse or the sun passes into the zodiacal signs of Cancer and Capricorn (at night), a marriage, a birth or death or when a *vrata* is undertaken with some object ¹⁵⁶⁴. Night means specially the two middle watches (Manu IV. 129, Kullūka thereon and Parāśara XII. 27).

1561. प्रातःस्नान्यरुणकिरणग्रस्तां प्राचीमवलोक्य स्नायात् । विष्णुध. सू. 64. 8; उषस्पुषसि यत्स्नानं संध्यायास्तुद्विदोऽपि वा । प्राजापत्येन तत्तुल्यं सर्वपापप्रणाशनम् ॥ चतुर्विंशतिमतः ; both quoted by the स्मृतिच. I. p. 111.

1562. अल्पत्वाद्धोमकालस्य बहुत्वात्स्नानकर्मणः । प्रातर्न तदुयात्स्नानं होमलोपो विगर्हितः ॥ गोमिल II. 24, quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 111.

1563. चतुर्थेऽहस्तथा भागे स्नानार्थं मृदनाहरेत् । तिलगुण्णकुशार्द्राश्च स्नायाच्चाकुत्रिमे जले ॥ दक्ष II. 43 ; ततो मध्याह्नसमये स्नानार्थं मृदनाहरेत् । पुण्याक्षतान्कुशतिलाच्च गोमयं गन्धमेव च ॥ लघुव्यास II. 9 (Jivānanda, part 2). The first is quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 181 and by अपरार्क p. 128 and the 2nd in परा. मा. I. 1. p. 269.

1564. अस्तमिति च स्नानम् (वर्जयेत्) ॥ आप. घ. सू. I. 11. 32. 8, बौ. घ. सू. II. 3. 29 ; राहुदर्शनसंक्रातिविवाहात्ययद्विष्टिषु । स्नानदानादिकं कुर्यान्निशि काम्यव्रतेषु च ॥ देवल quoted by अपरार्क pp. 135, 229, स्मृतिच. I. pp. 120, 229; vide पराशर XII. 26 to the same effect.

The obligatory (*nitya*) bath is to be taken with cold water and ordinarily hot water is not allowed. Śāṅkha (VIII. 9-10) says that if one bathes with heated water or in water belonging to another individual, he may effect the cleansing of the body but he would not secure the unseen spiritual result of a bath. Dakṣa II. 64 is to the same effect¹⁵⁶⁵. Naimittika and kāmya baths must be performed with cold water, there is an option only as to *nitya* (daily obligatory) bath (Garga quoted in the Sm. C. I. p. 123).

Manu IV. 203, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 64. 1-2 and 15-16, Yāj. I. 159, Dakṣa II. 43, Veda-Vyāsa-smṛti III. 7-8, Śāṅkha VIII. 11 and others say that one must daily bathe in natural water, i. e. in rivers, in tanks connected with temples, in lakes, in deep reservoirs and in mountain springs. One should not bathe in water belonging to an individual (i. e. a well or reservoir dug or dammed by him &c.) but if no water is otherwise available one may bathe with such water after removing three or five lumps of clay (from the bottom of the reservoir¹⁵⁶⁶) or three or five jars from the well. The idea is that either the private owner would participate in the merit of the bath (as Baud. Dh. S. II. 3. 7 remarks) or that the bather incurs a fourth part of the sin of the owner of the water (Manu IV. 201-202). If no such water is available or one is unable to go to a river &c. for a bath one may bathe in the court-yard of one's house with water drawn in a vessel (from a well &c.) till his clothes are wetted. The words 'nadi' and 'garta' (used in Manu IV. 203) are defined as follows: a nadi (river) is one that has a stream of water at least 8000 bows in length, while all other streams are called garta (a pool). As in the months of Śrāvana and Bhādrapada all rivers are full of mud (*rajasvalā* is used in a double sense) one should not bathe in them in those months, except in rivers that

1565. स्नानं तु बह्वितेन तथैव परवारिणा ॥ शरीरशुद्धिर्विज्ञेया न तु स्नानफलं लभेत् ॥ शङ्ख VIII. 9-10; वृथा ततोदकं स्नानं वृथा जाप्यमवैदिकम् । वृथा रतमगुत्रस्य वृथा शुक्रमसाक्षिकम् ॥ दक्ष IV. 64. The first is quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 128.

1566. निरुद्धासु न कुर्वीरजंशभावतत्र सेतुकृत् । तस्मात्परकृतान्सेतुन् कृपांश्च परिचर्जयेत् ॥ उद्भूतस्य वापि त्रीणिषण्डान्कुर्यादापत्सु नो सदा । निरुद्धासु तु सृत्पिण्डान्कृपाञ्जीनव्यदांस्तथा ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 3. 7 and 9. Vide गृहस्थरत्नाकर p. 195 for explanation.

directly reach the sea.¹⁵⁶⁷ But even in these months one may bathe in muddy rivers at the time of upākarma or utsarga, or on the death of a person or on the eclipse of the sun or the moon. Vide Viṣṇu Dh. S. 64. 17 which says that out of water drawn in a pot, water standing in a reservoir, a spring, a river, water in which noble men of the past bathed, Ganges water, each succeeding one is holier than each preceding one for a bath.¹⁵⁶⁸

The actual bath is described differently in different sūtras, smṛtis and digests. Gobhila-smṛti (I. 137) says¹⁵⁶⁹ that the morning bath contains the same procedure as the mid-day bath. The morning bath has to be brief, as already stated, in the case of one who has consecrated the śrauta fires. The procedure of bathing will be indicated by a few brief extracts. The Viṣṇu Dh. S. (64. 18-22) says 'having removed'¹⁵⁷⁰ the dirt from his body with water and loose earth, he should plunge in water, he should invoke the water with the three verses 'āpo hi ṣṭhā' (Rg. X. 9. 1-3), with the four verses 'hiraṇyavarnāḥ' (Tai. S. V. 6. 1. 1-2) and with the verse 'idamāpaḥ pravahata' (Rg. I. 23. 22 or X. 9. 8). Then while still plunged in water he should thrice mutter the Aghamaṛṣana hymn (Rg. X. 190. 1-3, ṛtam ca satyam &c.) or he may mutter 'tad viṣṇoḥ paramam padam' (Rg. I. 22. 20) or the Drupadā Śāvitṛī verse (Vāj. S. 20. 20) or the anuvāka beginning with 'yujjate mana' (Rg. V. 81. 1-5) or the Puruṣasūkta (Rg. X. 90. 1-16). 'Having bathed he should, with his garment still wet, perform tarpaṇa of gods and Manes while still in the water. But if he has changed his clothes, then he may do it (tarpaṇa) after

1567. मासद्वयं श्रावणादि सर्वा नद्यो रजस्वलाः । तासु स्नानं न कुर्वीत वर्जयित्वा सङ्गृह्याः ॥ धनुःसहस्राण्यष्टौ च गतिर्यासां न विद्यते । न ता नदीशब्दबद्धा गर्तास्ते परिकीर्तिताः ॥ उपाकर्मणि चोत्सर्गे प्रेतस्नाने तथैव च । चन्द्रसूर्यग्रहे चैव रजोदोषो न विद्यते ॥ गोभिलस्मृति I. 141-143, quoted by अपरार्क p. 135, स्मृतिच० I. pp. 130-131, गृह. र. 197-198 &c. अपरार्क p. 905 quotes a smṛti that a dhanus is equal to 96 āṅgulas and that 2000 bows are equal to one krośa.

1568. उद्धृतोऽग्निसिद्धसुदं पुण्यं स्थावरात्पद्मवर्णं तस्माद्वादिष्यं तस्मादपि साधुपरिशुद्धीतं सर्वत एव गाङ्गाय । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 64. 17.

1569. यथाहनि तथा प्रातर्निःश्रयादनातुरः । दन्तान्प्रक्षाल्य नद्यादौ गृहे चेत्तद्वमन्त्रवत् ॥ गोभिल I. 137; vide गृह. र. p. 179 for explanation.

1570. सूचोयैः कृतमलापकर्षोऽपि निमज्ज्यापो हि छेति तिसृभिर्हिरण्यवर्णा इति चतसृभिरिदमापः प्रवहेतेति चतुर्थमभिमन्त्रयेत् । ततोऽप्यु निमज्जस्त्रिरधमर्षणं जपेत् । तद्विष्णोः परमं पद्ममिति वा । द्वुपदां सावित्रीं वा । शुश्रूवे मन इत्यनुवाकं वा । पुरुषसूक्तं वा । स्नातश्चाद्वासा देवपितृतर्पणमभ्यःस्थ एव कुर्यात् परिवर्तितवासाश्चेत्तीर्थमुत्तीर्य । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 64. 18-24.

coming out of the water'. Even now many brāhmanas mutter the *Puruṣasūkta* while bathing. Śāṅkha-smṛti (IX) has a brief description of snāna which consists in invoking water, then mārjana with the three verses (āpo hi śṭhā), then repeating certain Vedic verses like 'hiranya-varṇāḥ', 'śan-no devīr', 'śam na āpaḥ' (Atharvaveda I. 6. 1 and 4) and thrice repeating Aghamarjana. *Vide* Madanapārijāta pp. 270-271, Gr. R. pp. 206-208 and Par. M. I. 1. pp. 274-275 where the whole of Śāṅkha (IX) is quoted. The Snānasūtra¹⁵⁷¹ of Kātyāyana says "Now then will be treated the daily obligatory bath in a river and the like. Having fetched loose earth, cowdung, sesame, kuśas and flowers, having approached the water side, having placed (the above) materials on a pure spot, having washed one's hands and feet, holding kuśa blades (or pavitra) in his hand, tying up his top knot and wearing the yajñopavīta, he should perform ācamana and invoke the water with the verse 'urum hi' (Rg. I. 24. 8 = Vāj. S. 8. 23), stir it (with his thumb) with the verses 'ye te śatam' (*vide* Par. gr. I. 2). He should fill his joined hands with water with the verse 'sumitriyā naḥ' (Vāj. S. VI. 22) and should cast it on the ground with the verse 'durmitriyā' (Vāj. S. VI. 22) in the direction of his enemy. He should apply loose earth thrice to each of the limbs, viz. the waist, the abdomen, thighs, feet and hands, then perform ācamana, should do obeisance to the water and should smear his body with loose earth. Facing the sun with the verse 'idam viṣṇur' (Rg. I. 22. 17 = Vāj. S. 5. 15), he should dive into the water and bathe with the verse 'āpo asmān' (Rg. X. 17. 10 = Vāj. S. IV. 2), then raise up his body with the mantra 'ud-id-ābhyah' (Vāj. S. IV. 2), again dip into water and again raise his head out of the water, perform ācamana and smear his body with cowdung with the mantra 'mā nastoke.' (Rg. I. 114. 1 = Vāj. S. 16. 16). Then he should bathe with the

1571. अथातो नित्यस्नानं नद्यादौ। मृद्धोमयकुशतिलसुमनस आहृत्योदकान्तं गत्वा शुचौ देशे स्थाप्य प्रक्षाल्य पाणिपादं कुशोपग्रहो बद्धशिखी यज्ञोपवीत्याचम्योर्ध्वं हीति तोयसामन्वयावर्तयेद्ये ते शतमिति। सुमित्रिया न इत्यपोऽञ्जलिनादाय दुर्मित्रिया इति द्वेष्यं प्रति निषिञ्चेत्। कर्दि वस्त्यूरजङ्घे चरणौ करो मृदा त्रिञ्चिः प्रक्षाल्याचम्य नमस्योदकमालभेदङ्गानि मृदेदं विष्णुरिति सूर्याभिमुखो निमज्जेदापो अस्मानिति स्नात्वेदिदाम्य इत्युन्मज्य निमज्ज्योन्मज्ज्याचम्य गोमयेन विलिम्पेन्मा नस्तोक इति। ततोभिषिञ्चेद्विमं मे वरुणेति चतसृभिर्माप उदुत्तमं मृद्वन्त्ववभृतेत्यन्ते चैतस्त्रिन्मज्ज्याचम्य दुर्मैः पावयेदापो हिष्ठेति तिसृभिरिदमापो हविष्मतीर्द्वीराप इति द्वाभ्यामपो देवा द्रुपदादिव शन्नो देवीरपां रसमपो देवीः पुनन्तु मेति नवभिश्चैत्यतिमैर्योकारेण व्याहृतिभिर्गायत्र्या चादावन्ते चान्तजलेऽवमर्षणं त्रिरावर्तयेद् द्रुपदादिवायं गौरिति वा तुच्चं प्राणायामं वा सशिरसामिति वा विष्णोर्वा स्मरणम्॥ कात्यायनीय स्नानसूत्र. शृङ्ग. र. (pp. 208-211) quotes this and explains some portion and differs from a Bhāṣya thereon.

four mantras 'imam me Varuṇa' (Vāj. S. 21. 1-4), and with the verses 'mā āpo', 'uduttamam' (Vāj. S. 12. 12), 'muñcantu', (Rg. X. 97. 16 = Vāj. S. 12. 90), 'avabhṛtha' (Vāj. S. III. 48). At the end of these mantras he should dive into the water and then rise up out of it, perform ācamana and sprinkle with darbha blades his body with the nine verses, viz. the three beginning with 'āpo hi sṭhā' (Rg. X. 9. 1-3 = Vāj. S. 11. 50-52), 'idam-āpah' (Vāj. S. VI. 17), with the two verses 'haviṣmatīr' (Vāj. S. VI. 23) and 'devirāpah' (Vāj. S. I. 12), 'apo devāḥ' (Vāj. S. X. 1), 'drupadād-iva' (Vāj. S. 20. 20), 'śan-no devīr' (Vāj. S. 36. 12), 'apām rasam' (Vāj. S. 9. 3), 'āpo devīḥ', and 'punantu mā'. Then he should repeat thrice, while diving in water, the Aghamarṣaṇa hymn (Rg. X. 190. 1-3) preceded by the mantra 'cit patir-mā' (Vāj. S. 4. 4), by the syllable om, by the vyāhṛtis, by the Gāyatri and followed by the same; or he may repeat the verse 'drupadād-iva' (Vāj. S. 20. 20) or the three verses 'āyam gauḥ' (Rg. X. 189. 1-3 = Vāj. S. 3. 6) or he should perform prāṇāyāma with the śīras (viz. āpo jyotiḥ raso smṛtam brahma &c. cited above on p. 304 from Tai. Ā. X. 15) or he should repeat simply 'om' thrice or he should only contemplate on Viṣṇu. Having come out of the water, he should put on two washed garments, should wash his hands and thighs with loose earth, should perform ācamana and then prāṇāyāma thrice".¹⁵⁷²

Yogi-Yājñavalkya quoted by Aparārka and other works says that when a man is unable to perform the elaborate snāna described by himself and others, he should engage only in this; he should invoke the water, then perform ācamana, then mārjana (sprinkling water on body with kuśa blades) and then snāna and muttering of Aghamarṣaṇa (Rg. X. 190.1-3)¹⁵⁷³ thrice. The Gr. R. (pp. 215-217) quotes the method of snāna according to the Padmapurāṇa and the Nṛsiṃhapurāṇa and remarks that the procedure in the Padmapurāṇa may be observed by all varṇas and by men following all the different Vedic schools (except the Vedic mantras in the case of sūdras). The Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 28) also gives a brief procedure of snāna.

1572. उचीर्य धौते वाससी परिधाय मुदोरु करौ प्रक्षालयाच्चम्य त्रिरायम्यासूत ।
कात्यायनीयस्नानसूत्र 2.

1573 योऽसौ विस्तरतः प्रोक्तः स्नानस्य विधिरुत्तमः । असामर्थ्यात् कुर्याच्चैतन्नायं विधि-
कथ्यते ॥ स्नानमन्तर्जले चैव मार्जनाचमने तथा । जलाभिस्मन्त्रणं चैव तथैव परिकल्पनम् ॥
अथमर्षणसूक्तेन त्रिरावृत्तेन नित्यशः । स्नानाचरणमित्येतत्समुद्दिष्टं महात्मभिः ॥ योगियाज्ञ-
वल्क्य quoted by अपरार्क p. 134, गृह. र. p. 212 (where it is explained).

There are certain rules to be observed when bathing. One was not to bathe naked (Gaut. IX. 61 and Manu IV. 45), nor with all clothes on (but only with the lower garment) nor after taking one's meal (Manu 4. 29); one was not to rub the body in water but outside on the bank, one should not strike the water with one's foot or hand or dash a portion of the water against the rest.¹⁵⁷⁴

The earth to be employed (like soap) for cleansing the body was to be obtained from a pure place and not from an¹⁵⁷⁵ ant-hill or from places infested by mice, nor from under water, nor from the public road, nor from the bottom of a tree, nor from near temples, nor out of what was left by some person after using a portion for his own *śauca* and is to be invoked with two verses 'āsvakrānte¹⁵⁷⁶ &c.' Laghu-Hārīta (v. 70-71) says 'earth secured after digging eight *āṅgulas* from the surface should be used, all earth is pure which is taken from a place not frequented by people and that ten kinds of earth should not be used at the time of bathing' (verses 72-73).

The *brahmacārin* was not to bathe in a leisurely or sporting manner but to dive in water motionless like a stick.

The *Mahābhārata*, *Dakṣa* and others say that ten good consequences follow from *snāna* viz. strength, beauty, clearness of complexion and voice, (pleasant) touch and odour (of the body), purity, prosperity, delicacy and fine women.¹⁵⁷⁷

Bathing with water is divided into six varieties by Śaṅkha *smṛti* (VIII. 1-11), *Agnipurāṇa* 155. 3-4 and others, viz. *nitya*, *naimittika*, *kāmya*, *kriyāṅga*, *malāpakarṣaṇa* (or *abhyāṅga-snāna*),

1574. शङ्खलिखितौ । अनश्नन् अनग्नः स्नायान्नावमेहेत नोद्धर्षणं कुर्यान् पादेन पाणिना वा जलमभिहन्याद्यस्मादापो वै सर्वा देवताः । गृहस्थरत्नाकर p. 191-192; vide वसिष्ठ VI. 36-37 न पादेन पाणिना वा जलमभिहन्यात् । न जलेन जलम् ॥

1575. मृत्तिकाः सप्त न ग्राह्या वल्मीकान्मुषकस्थलात् । अन्तर्जलाच्च मार्गान्ताश्च वृक्षमूलास्तुरालयात् ॥ परशौचावशिष्टा च श्रेयस्कामैः सदा दुष्येः । शुचिदेशात्तु संग्राह्या मृत्तिका स्नानहेतवे ॥ दक्ष II. 44-45. Vide शातातप quoted by गृह. र. p. 188 and परा. मा. I. part 1 p. 271. Vide अत्रि 321-322 for the seven kinds of earth to be avoided.

1576. The verses अश्वक्रान्ते are दक्ष II. 46-47 and occur in तै. आ. X. 1, the मत्स्यपुराण 102. 10-12. Vide स्पृत्तिच. I. p. 183.

1577. गुणा दश स्नानशीलं भजन्ते बलं रूपं स्वरवर्णप्रभुद्धिः । स्पर्शश्च गन्धश्च विद्युद्धता च श्रीः सौकुमार्यं प्रवराश्च नार्यः ॥ उद्योगपर्व 37. 33. दक्ष II. 13 is similar which occurs also in स्पृत्यर्थसार p. 25.

kriyāsnāna. Nitya snāna (daily bath) has been described above. A few observations are made below on each of the others. On certain occasions or on coming in contact with certain persons or things one has to bathe, although one may have already bathed that day. This is called *naimittika* (due to some occasion or cause) *snāna*. For example, on the birth of a son, in a sacrifice (at the end), on the passing away of a relative, in eclipses, one has to bathe and even at night ¹⁵⁷⁸ (Parāśara XII. 26 and Devala quoted above). Similarly a man has to bathe with all his clothes on if he touches an outcast (who is guilty of one of the mortal sins), a *cāṇḍāla*, a woman who has recently delivered, a woman in her monthly course, a corpse, or one who has touched a corpse or one who has touched another that has come in contact with a corpse or when a man follows a corpse ¹⁵⁷⁹ (Gaut. 14. 28-29, Vas. 4. 38, Manu V. 85 and 103, Yāj. III. 30, Laghu-Āśvalāyana 20. 24). According to Manu V. 144, Śaṅkha-smṛti VIII. 3, Mārka. purāṇa 34. 82-83, Brahmapurāṇa 113. 79, Parāśara XII. 28, if a man vomits or has many purges (ten or more), if he has a shave or has a bad dream, has had sexual intercourse, if he repairs to a cemetery, or is covered with smoke from a funeral pyre or touches a sacrificial post or a human bone, he has to undergo a bath to purify himself ¹⁵⁸⁰. Āp. Dh. S. I. 5. 15. 16 prescribes a bath if a man is bitten by a dog and Gaut. 14. 30 prescribes it even for touching it. If a man touches Bauddhas, Pāsūpatas, Jainas, Lokāyatikas, atheists, dvijātis living by condemned actions and sūdras he should bathe with his clothes ¹⁵⁸¹ on. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 30, the Sm. C. I. pp. 117-119 and other digests speak of *snāna* being necessary on coming in contact with

1578. पुत्रजन्मनि यज्ञे च तथा चात्ययकर्मणि । राहोश्च दर्शने दानं प्रशस्तं नान्यद्वा निशि ॥ पराशर XII. 26.

1579. पतितचण्डालसूतिकोदकयाशवस्थुष्टितत्सृष्टच्युत्स्पर्शने सचैलोदकोपस्पर्शनाच्छुष्येत । शवाञ्जुगमने च । गो. 14. 28-29 ; सपिण्डमरणे चैव पुत्रजन्मनि वै तथा । स्नानं नैमित्तिकं शस्तं प्रवदन्ति महर्षयः ॥ लब्धवाश्वलायन 20. 24.

1580. दुःस्वप्ने मैथुने वान्ते विरिक्ते क्षुरकर्मणि । चितियूपमशानास्थनां स्पर्शने स्नानमाचरेत् ॥ पराशर quoted in मिता० on या. III. 30, which is slightly different from the printed पराशर XII. 1. ; क्षुरकर्मणि वान्ते च स्त्रीसंभोगे च पुत्रक । स्नायीत चेलवान्प्राज्ञः कटभूमिमुपेत्य च ॥ मार्कण्डेयपुराण 34. 82-83; vide Baud. Dh. S. I. 5. 52 for a verse similar to पराशर's.

1581. क्षौवान्याश्रुपतान् सृष्ट्वा लोकायतिकनास्तिकान् । विकर्मस्थान् द्विजान् शूद्रान्सवासा जलमाविशेत् ॥ ब्रह्माण्डपुराण quoted in मिता० on या. III. 30. ; सृष्टिच० I. p. 118 quotes षट्त्रिंशन्मत reading 'बौद्धान् पाशुपताञ्जनैः लोकायतिककापिलान् । विक सृष्ट्वा सवासा जलमाविशेत्'.

several birds (like the crow) and animals (like the cock and village hog), which are passed over for want of space.

*Kāmya-snāna*¹⁵⁸² (bath for some desired object) is that which is taken when one goes to a tirtha (a sacred place) or when there is some astrological conjunction like the moon being in the constellation of *puṣya* (*vide Śaṅkhasmṛti VIII. 4*) or when one bathes in the morning in the two months of Māgha and Phālguna for securing abundant pleasures. *Vide Sm. C. I. pp. 122-123* for numerous examples.

When a man has to take a bath as a part of the religious rite such as the rite of dedicating a well, a temple, a park to the public, that is called *kriyāṅga-snāna*.¹⁵⁸³

When a man applies oil to his body, uses myrobalans and engages in a bath solely for cleaning the body (and with no idea of performing an obligatory duty or securing religious merit) that is called *malāpakarṣaka* or *abhyāṅga-snāna*. The *Sm. C. I. p. 125*, *Aparārka pp. 195-196* and other works lay down elaborate rules about this snāna. One rule is that on certain tithis like parva (*vide Manu IV 128* and *Yāj I. 79* above on p. 204) there is to be no bath with oil &c. It is said that one desiring prosperity should use dried myrobalan (*āmalaka*) at the time of bath except on the 7th and 9th tithis and on parva days.¹⁵⁸⁴ *Vide Vāmanapurāṇa 14. 49 ff.* (quoted in *Sm. C. I. p. 125*) for astrological rules.

When a man regards bathing at a sacred place the reward of his pilgrimage and engages in the procedure prescribed by *Śaṅkhasmṛti IX.* that is called *kriyā-snāna*.¹⁵⁸⁵

A person who is ill may bathe with hot water or he may, if he cannot bear that, only wash his body except the head or his body may be rubbed with a wet piece of cloth. This last method

1582. पुण्यस्नानादिकं स्नानं दैवज्ञाविधिचोदितम् । तद्धि काम्यं सयुद्धिं नाकाम-
स्तत्पयोजयेत् ॥ शङ्ख VIII. 4.

1583. इष्टापूर्तक्रियार्थं यत् क्रियाङ्गं स्नानमुच्यते । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 27; मलापकर्ष-
णार्थं तु स्नानमभ्यङ्गपूर्वकम् । मलापकर्षणार्थाय प्रवृत्तिस्तस्य नान्यथा ॥ शङ्ख VIII. 6.

1584. श्रीकामस्तु सदा स्नानं कुर्वीतामलकैर्नरः । सप्तमीं नवमीं चैव पर्वकालं च
वर्जयेत् ॥ मार्कण्डेय quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 123.

1585. स्नानमेव फलं तीर्थे क्रियास्नानं तदुच्यते । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 27. Śaṅkha IX is
quoted by *Sm. C. I. p. 127*, *Gr. R. pp. 206-8*, *Par. M. I. part 1 p. 274*.

is called *kāpila-snāna*.¹⁵⁸⁶ There is another method where a man is ill and something happens on which it is absolutely necessary for him to bathe; in this case one who is not ill should touch him and then bathe himself and then again touch him and bathe; when this is repeated ten times the person who is ill is deemed to have become pure as if he had bathed.¹⁵⁸⁷ In the case of a woman in her monthly course, if on the fourth day she has high fever, she is not to be bathed, but another woman is to touch her and bathe with all her clothes on and perform ācamana and touch her and bathe again; this is to be carried out ten or twelve times and in the end the clothes worn by the ailing woman are to be taken off and new ones to be given to her and she becomes clean.¹⁵⁸⁸

The bath with water is called *Vāruṇa* (as *Varuṇa* is the lord of waters, according to Rg. VII. 49. 3 'yāsām rājā Varuṇo' &c.) and *Vāruṇa* is the principal kind of bath. There are six kinds of *gaṇa snānas* which may be employed when one is either ill and so unable as to undergo a regular bath or when there is no time or room to take a regular bath. These six (with *Vāruṇa* as the seventh) are enumerated and defined in *Yogayājñavalkya* and other works and they are: *mantrasnāna*, *bhauma*, *āgneya*, *vāyavya*, *divya*, *mānasa*. *Dakṣa* II. 15-16 and *Parāśara* XII. 9-11 mention these except *bhauma* and *mānasa* and employ the word *brāhma* in place of *mantrasnāna*. The *Vaik. gr.* (I. 2 and 5) employs both words 'mantra' and 'gurbanujñā' as synonymous. *Garga* and *Bṛhaspati* omit *bhauma* and *mānasa* and speak of *sūrasvata-snāna* instead, which consists in the blessing pronounced by a learned man in the case of a *dvijāti*, or a pupil or his son 'may you have a bath with golden jars of Ganges water and of other sacred waters' (vide *Āhnikā-prakāśa*

1586. अशिरस्कं भवेत् स्नानं स्नानाशक्तौ तु कर्मिणाम् । आर्द्रेण वाससा वापि मार्जनं द्वेहिकं विदुः ॥ जाबालि quoted by अपरार्क p. 135; 'आर्द्रेण कर्पटेनाङ्गशोधनं कापिलं विदुः ।' बृहस्पति; both quoted by स्मृतिच० I. p. 134, आह्निकप्रकाश p. 197.

1587. आहुरस्नान उत्पन्ने दशकृत्वो ह्यनाहुरः । स्नात्वा स्नात्वा स्पृशेदेनं ततः शुभ्येत्स आहुरः ॥ यम (Jivānanda, part I p. 565), बृहत्पराशर chap. VI. p. 208 (Jivānanda, part II); quoted as यम's in स्मृतिच० I. p. 121, आह्निकप्रकाश p. 197.

1588. ज्वराभिभूता या नारी रजसा च परिभूता । ... चतुर्थेहनि संभाते स्पृशेदन्या तु तां स्त्रियम् । सा सचैलावशाद्यापः स्नात्वा स्नात्वा पुनः स्पृशेत् ॥ दशद्विदशकृत्वो वा आशानेद्य पुनः पुनः । अन्ते तु वाससां त्यागस्ततः शुद्धा भवेत् सा । उशनस् quoted by स्मृतिच० I. p. 121.

pp. 196-197). The mantrasnāna¹⁵⁸⁹ consists in sprinkling water with the verses 'āpo hi ṣṭhā' (Rg. X. 9. 1-3), the *bhauma* (or *pārthiva*) in smearing the body with loose earth, *āgneya* in smearing the body with holy ashes, *vāyavya* in taking on the body the dust raised by the hoofs of cows, *divya* in wetting one's body with a shower of rain accompanied with sunshine and *mānasa* in reflecting on God Viṣṇu.

Tarpaṇa (offering water to gods, sages and Manes) is an *āṅga* (a subsidiary constituent part) of *snāna*, just as it is an *āṅga* in *brahma-yajña*. When a person plunges his whole body in water including the head, he has to perform *tarpaṇa* while still standing in the water. *Vide* Manu II. 176, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 64. 23-24 (quoted above in n.1570), Parāśara XII. 12-13 for this. He joins his two hands together, takes water in the joined hands and casts the water into the stream in which he is standing. If he changes his clothes, then he may perform the *tarpaṇa* on the bank of the river. There was a difference of opinion about *tarpaṇa*. Some said¹⁵⁹⁰ that a man had to perform *tarpaṇa* as an *āṅga* of *snāna* immediately after it and before *samdhya* prayer and then again the same day as an *āṅga* of *brahmayajña*; while others held that *tarpaṇa* was to be performed only once in the day after *samdhya* prayer. One has to perform *tarpaṇa* according to the procedure prescribed in one's *śākhā* (Vedic school) but Śāṅkha prescribes a brief *tarpaṇa* which consists in the words 'may the universe from Brahmā down to a bunch of grass be satisfied' (or satiated) and offering three *añjalis* (joined hands) of water. When he performs *tarpaṇa*

1589. असामर्थ्याच्छरीरस्य कालशक्त्याद्यपेक्षया । मन्त्रस्नानादितः सप्त केचिदिच्छन्ति सूरयः । मान्त्रं भौमं तथाग्रेयं वायव्यं दिव्यमेव च । वारुणं मानसं चैव सप्त स्नानान्यनुक्रमात् ॥ आपो हिष्ठादिभिर्मान्त्रं मुदालम्भश्च पाथिवम् । आग्नेयं भरमना स्नानं वायव्यं गौरजः स्मृतम् ॥ यत्तु सातपर्वणेण तद्विष्यं स्नानमुच्यते । वारुणं चावगाहस्तु मानसं विष्णुचिन्तनम् । ... कालादेशादसामर्थ्यात्सर्वं तुल्यफलं स्मृतम् ॥ मानसं प्रवरं स्नानं केचिदिच्छन्ति सूरयः । योगयाज्ञवल्क्य quoted by अपरार्क pp. 134-135, स्मृतिचं I. p. 133, गृह. र. p. 203. विश्वरूप on या I. 22 quotes दक्ष II. 15.

1590. इदं च स्नानाङ्गतर्पणं स्नानाव्यवहितोत्तरमेव कार्यम् । अङ्गानां प्रधानदेशकालान्वयौचित्यात् । यत्तु कार्यायनादिभिः संभ्याबन्धनब्रह्मयज्ञाद्युत्तरं तर्पणमभिहितं तत् पञ्चयज्ञान्तर्गतमास्यहिकतर्पणाभिप्रायम् । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 191; vide the next page also and p. 144 'सृष्टमेतत्पाराशरमाधवीये चतुर्विंशतिमते । यथा । स्नानादनुत्तरं तावत्तर्पयेत्पितृदेवताः । उत्तीर्य पीडयेद्ब्रह्मं संध्याकर्म ततः परम् । इति । एवं च यत् क्वचित्संध्योत्तरतर्पणाभिधानं तद्वद्भक्तव्यस्वतन्त्रतर्पणाभिप्रायकम् । मैथिलास्तु यथाहनि तथा प्रातस्ति पचनेन माभ्याह्निककमातिदेशात् संध्योत्तरमेव प्रातःस्नानाङ्गतर्पणम् । हिष्ठाचारोग्येवमेव ।

standing in water, he should not wring the water from the ends of his garment until he has finished it. He should then wring¹⁵⁹¹ the ends of his garment and the water so falling down is deemed to be meant for the sonless deceased persons born in the family of the bather and he has to repeat a verse to that effect. Further details of *tarpana* are set out under *brahmayajña* below.

After one takes a bath one was not to shake one's head (for getting rid of the water), nor should one rub off the water on one's body with one's hand or with the garment already worn by one; one has to cover one's head with a turban (to dry the hair) and wear two fresh garments already washed and dried (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 64. 9-13).

What clothes the brahmacārin was to wear has already been stated (pp. 278-279). A few words must be said about the clothes to be worn by a householder.

Weaving and woven cloth are frequently referred to in the Veda, generally in a metaphorical sense or in similes. *Vide* Rg. I. 115. 4, II. 3. 6, V. 29. 15, X. 106. 1. In Rg. VI. 9. 2-3, both warp (*tantu*) and woof (*otu*) are mentioned. The words used for garment are 'vāsas' or 'vastra'. In the Tai. S. (VI. 1. 1. 3) it is said that *kṣauma* (linen) cloth is worn when a person takes the *dikṣā* (initiatory rite) for a Vedic sacrifice. In the Kāṭhaka Samh. XV. 1 *kṣauma* cloth is said to be the fee in a certain rite. In the Atharvaveda VIII. 2. 16 we have the two words 'vāsaḥ' (outer garment) and 'nivi' (under garment)¹⁵⁹² used with reference to the same man. In the Rg. the word 'adhivāsa' is also used with reference to a garment which must have been somewhat like a mantle or toga (Rg. I. 162. 16). In the Tai. S. II. 4. 9. 2 the skin of the black deer is mentioned. In the Śat. Br. V. 2. 1. 8 it is said that when the Nestṛ¹⁵⁹³ priest is about to lead up the sacrificer's wife he makes her put on a kuśa upper garment (vāsas) or a kuśa skirt next to the cloth that

1591. शङ्खः । आब्रह्मस्तम्बपर्यन्तं जगत्सृप्यत्विति ब्रुवन् । जलाञ्जलित्रयं दद्यादेतस्-
क्षेपतर्पणम् । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 145. चतुःसंवेष्ट्य वासीन्तं स्नातो निष्पीडयेत्स्थले । ये के
चास्मत्कुले जाता इति मन्त्रेण मानवः । मन्त्रश्च काष्ण्याजिनिनोकः । ये के चास्मत्कुले जाता
अयुजा गोत्रिणी भुताः । ते शुद्धन्तु मया वृत्तं वस्त्रनिष्पीडनोदकम् ॥ स्मृतिश्रु. (आह्निक) p. 250.

1592. यत्ने वासः परिधानं यां नीर्वि कृणुषे त्वम् । अथर्ववेद VIII. 2. 16.

1593. तस्माक्षेष्टा पत्नीहृदानिष्पन्कौशं वासः परिधापयति कौशं वा चण्डातकमन्तरं
दीक्षितवसनात् । शतपथब्रा. V. 2. 1. 8. कौश may mean 'made of silk or made
of kuśa grass'.

one who is initiated for the sacrifice wears. In the Br. Up. II. 3. 6. there ¹⁵⁹⁴ is a reference to cloth dyed red with safflower or woollen cloth that is whitish in colour. Rg. IV. 22. 2 and Rg. V. 52. 9 are interpreted by Western scholars as referring to wool on the Parusnī river being the best, but the sense is rather obscure. It appears from the above that cloth was either woollen or linen, that silken (or kuśa) cloth was worn on very solemn occasions, that deer-skin was also employed as covering and that cloth was also dyed red. Whether cotton cloth was known in the earliest Vedic period is not certain. It is clear that in the sūtras (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 15 and 63. 24) and in Manu (8. 326 and 12. 64) cotton cloth is known and so its use must have reached several centuries before the times of the sūtras. Arrian (tr. by MacCrindle) says that Indian dress was made of cotton (p. 219).

The Āp. Dh. S. (II. 2. 4. 22-23) requires that a householder should always wear an upper garment (besides the lower one) but allows him to have only the sacred thread instead (if he be poor &c.). Vas. Dh. S. XII. 14 says that *snātakas* (those who have returned from the stage of student-hood) should always wear a lower garment and an upper one, two *yajñopavītas* &c. The Baud. Dh. S. I. 3. 2. says the same and adds that a *snātaka* should wear a turban, a deer-skin as upper garment, shoes and have an umbrella. Aparārka (pp. 133-134) quotes verses from Vyāghra and Yogayājñavalkya to the same effect, the latter remarking that if one cannot procure a second washed garment one may wear a blanket of wool, or hempen or linen cloth. Baud. Dh. S. (I. 6. 5-6, 10-11) says 'among garments'¹⁵⁹⁵ the one that has not been worn is pure and therefore everything connected with sacrifice and worship should be done with fresh (or unblemished) clothes. The sacrificer, his wife and the priests should wear garments that have been washed, dried in the wind and are not worn out by use ; but in sacrifices performed for *abhiçāra* (harm to one's enemies) the priests should wear clothes and turbans dyed red. In consecrating the Vedic fires one should wear clothes made

1594. तस्य हैतस्य पुरुषस्य रूपं यथा माहारजनं वासो यथा पाण्डुराविकं &c. बृह. उप. II. 3. 6.

1595. अथ स्नातकस्य अन्तर्वास उत्तरीयम् । वैणवं दण्डं धारयेत् । सोदकं च कमण्डलुम् । द्वियज्ञोपवीती । उष्णीषमजितमुत्तरमुपानहौ छत्रमोपासनं दर्शपूर्णमासौ । बौ. ध. सू. I. 3. 1-6. Compare for red clothes and turban in magic rites शबर on जै. III. 8. 12 'इत्येने भूयते लोहितोष्णीषा लोहितवसना ऋत्विजः प्रचरन्तीति ।'

of flax or if they are not available cotton or woollen ones. Śābara on Jaimini X. 4. 13 quotes *śruti* passages to the effect that the sacrificer and his wife wear fresh unused clothes in the model sacrifice and in the Mahāvratā the sacrificer wears in addition a *tārpya* (silk garment) and his wife wears one made of kuśa grass.¹⁵⁹⁶ Baud. Dh. S. II. 3. 66 requires that one must wear an upper garment in five acts viz. study of the Veda, dedication of a well or a tank &c. to the public, making gifts, taking one's meal or ācamana. Similarly the Viṣṇupurāṇa (III. 12. 20) requires that a man must not, with only one garment on, begin homa, the worship of gods and similar rites, study of the Veda, ācamana and japa.¹⁵⁹⁷ Gaut. 9. 4-5, Āp. Dh. S. I. 11. 30. 10-13, Manu IV. 34-35, Yāj. I. 131 and others enjoin that a *snātaka* and a householder should wear white garments and they must not be worn out or dirty if he has enough (means) and should not wear dyed garments or garments of high price (or gaudy ones) or those worn by another.¹⁵⁹⁸ Baud. Dh. S. II. 8. 24 remarks 'what a man, while wearing reddish garments, does such as japa, homa, receiving gifts, offerings made to gods and Manes, does not reach the gods.'¹⁵⁹⁹ Cloth dyed in indigo is also forbidden and a male has to undergo a fast and take *pañcagavya* for wearing such cloth. The Āpastamba smṛti (in verse) chap. VI has several verses on cloth dyed in indigo. The Mit. on Yāj. III. 292 quotes verses 1-5 of Āpastamba. Vide Aparārka p. 1186 for quotation of the same verses and also of Āngiras, verses 32-39 (which are almost the same as Āpastamba's). Gaut. 9. 5-7, Manu IV. 66, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 47, Mārka. purāṇa¹⁶⁰⁰ 34. 42-43 prescribe that one should not wear the shoes, garment

1596. महाव्रते श्रूयते तात्पर्यं यजमानः परिधत्ते दुर्भमयं परनी इति । अस्ति तु प्रकृतौ अहतं वासः परिधत्ते इति । शबर on जै. X, 4. 13. Vide Baud. Dh. S. I. 6. 13 as to how *tārpya* is to be purified. The word अहत has two meanings ; (1) cloth fresh from the loom (to be worn in marriages and similar *māṅgala* ceremonies) ; (2) garment that is washed, but not used for many days, that is virtually new and has its fringes intact. Vide Sm. C. I. p. 113.

1597. होमदेवार्चनाद्यासु क्रियासु पठने तथा । नैकवस्त्रः प्रवर्तेत द्विजो नाचमने जपे ॥ विष्णुपुराण III. 12. 20, quoted by हेमाद्रि (ब्रतखण्ड p. 35).

1598. सति विभवे न जीर्णमलवद्वासाः स्यात् । न रक्तमुल्वणमन्यधृतं वासो विभृ-
यात् । गौतम 9. 4-5 ; सर्वान्वासान्वाससि वर्जयेत् । कुण्डं च स्वाभाविकम् । अनुद्भासि वासो
वसीत । अमतिकुण्डं च शक्तिविषये । आप. ध. सू. I. 11. 30. 10-13.

1599. काषायवासा यान्कुर्वते जपहोमप्रतिग्रहान् । न तद्देवगमं भवति हव्यकव्येषु
यद्धतिः ॥ बौ. ध. सू. II. 8. 24, quoted by अपरार्क p. 461.

1600. उपानहृत्तमालयादि धृतमन्यैर्न धारयेत् । उपवीतमलंकारं करकं चैव वर्जयेत् ॥
मार्कण्डेयपुराण 34. 42-43.

yajñopavīta, ornament, garland, or water-jar used by another but if a man is unable to secure one for himself, he may wear another's garment or shoes or garland after cleansing it. According to Garga quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 113) a brāhmaṇa should wear white garments, a kṣatriya red and brilliant ones, a vaiśya yellow ones, a śūdra should wear a dark one that is dirty. The Mahābhārata says that one has to wear garments at the time of worshipping gods that are different from those that one wears while walking on a road or when one is in bed ¹⁶⁰¹. Prajāpati quoted by Par. M. states that in tarpaṇa one should wear silk cloth having a hem or one that is orange-coloured, but never one that is gaudy. Probably it is requirements like these that led to the practice of wearing silken garments at the time of meals and worship, which practice is observed even now in many parts of India. Manu IV. 18 and Viṣṇu Dh. S. 71. 5-6 prescribe that one must dress, speak and entertain thoughts that would be in keeping with one's age, occupation, monetary affairs, learning, family and country. The garments to be worn by the vānaprastha and samnyāsin will be discussed below. The smṛtis contain rules about tucking up the lower garment. A garment should be tucked in three places i. e. when it is tucked near the navel, on the left side and behind on the back. A brāhmaṇa is said to be a śūdra as long as he has not tucked his garment behind or allows one corner of it to hang down from behind like a tail, or has tucked it in the wrong way or side, or has wound part of it round his waist or has covered the upper part of the body with a portion of the lower garment. Vide Sm. M. (āhnika pp. 351-353) and Sm. C. I. pp. 113-114 for these and other rules about wearing garments.

After one bathes, one has to sip water (Dakṣa II. 20. ff) and make marks on his forehead (variously called *tilaka*, *ūrdhva-pundra*, *tripundra* &c.) according to one's caste or sect. In the Āhnikaprakāśa (pp. 248-252), in the Smṛtimuktāphala (āhnika pp. 292-310) elaborate rules are laid down on this subject. In the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa ¹⁶⁰² it is stated that for making

1601. अन्यदेव भवेद्वासः शयनीयेन्यदेव तु । अन्यद्रथ्यासु देवानामर्चायामन्यदेव तु । अशुक्लासन 104. 46, quoted by अपरार्क p. 173 and गृह. र. p. 501. माधवीये प्रजापतिः । क्षौमे वासः प्रशंसन्ति तर्पणे सदृशं तथा । काषायं धातुरक्तं वा नोल्बणं तच्च कर्हिचित् ॥ आचाररत्नं p. 33a.

1602. पर्वताग्रे नदीतिरे मम क्षेत्रे विशेषतः । सिन्धुतीरे च बल्मीके तुलसीमूलमाश्रिते ॥ सुद एवास्तु संयाह्या वर्जयेदन्यसृत्तिकाः । ब्रह्माण्डपुराण quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 115; vide नित्याचारमदीप pp. 42-43.

ūrdhvapundra (vertical mark of a line or lines on the forehead) one may select earth from the top of mountains or from banks of holy rivers like the Indus and the Ganges, from places sacred to Viṣṇu, from ant-hills and from the root of the *tulasī* plant. The thumb, the middle finger and the finger next to the small finger are to be used in making the mark, but the nails should not come in contact with the earth employed. The mark may be of the form of a lamp and its wick, or of the form of bamboo leaves or a lotus bud, or of a fish or tortoise or a conch and the mark may be in length from two to ten fingers. The marks are to be made on the forehead, the chest, the throat and its pit, on the abdomen, the right and left sides, the arms, the ears, the back, the back of the neck, after taking the twelve names of Viṣṇu (viz. Keśava, Nārāyaṇa &c.) for each of the above twelve parts of the body. The *tripundra* mark (three oblique lines) is to be made with holy ashes (*bhasman*) and the tilaka with sandalwood paste.¹⁶⁰³ According to the *Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa*, the *ūrdhvapundra* is made after a bath with loose earth in such a way that it resembles the outline of the foot (of Hari),¹⁶⁰⁴ the *tripundra* with holy ashes after homa, and the tilaka (a circular mark) with sandalwood paste on worshipping gods (*devapūjā*). The Sm. M. (*āhnika* p. 292) quotes *Vāsudevopaniṣad* for making the *ūrdhvapundra* mark on the forehead and other places with *Gopīcandana* (magnesian or calcareous clay) or in its absence with earth from the roots of the *tulasī* plant. Sacrifice, gifts, japa, homa, study of the Veda, tarpaṇa of the Manes, if done without the *ūrdhvapundra* mark, become fruitless (according to Viṣṇu quoted in Sm. M. *āhnika* p. 292). The *Vṛddha-Hārīta smṛti* (II. 58-72) has a long note on *ūrdhvapundra*. The Sm. M. (*āhnika* p. 296) notes that some texts of the Pāsupata and other Śaiva sectarians run down *ūrdhvapundra* and highly extol the *tripundra* mark, while Pāñcarātra texts enjoin the marking of the body with *śaṅkha*, *cakra* and other weapons of Viṣṇu and condemn *tripundra*. Devout worshippers of Viṣṇu who are followers of Madhvācārya brand the weapons of

1603. ऊर्ध्वपुण्ड्रं मुदा कुर्यान्निपुण्ड्रं भस्मना सदा। तिलकं वै द्विजः कुर्याच्चन्दनेन यदृच्छया ॥ quoted in आह्निकप्रकाश p. 250 and मदनपारिजात p. 279. The त्रिपुण्ड्र is defined as भ्रुवोर्मध्ये समारभ्य यावदन्तो भवेद्भ्रुवोः। मध्यमानामिकाङ्गुल्योर्मध्ये तु प्रतिलोमतः। अङ्गुलेन कृता रेखा त्रिपुण्ड्राख्यामिधीयते ॥

1604. द्वारवस्तुद्धवं गोपीचन्दनं वेङ्कटोद्धवम्। सान्तरालं प्रकुर्वीत पुण्ड्रं हरिपदा-कृतिम् ॥ आह्निककाले विशेषेण कर्ता भोक्ता च धारयेत्। वृद्धहारित VIII. 67-68.

Viṣṇu such as the conch on their arms and bodies with heated metal pieces, just as early Christians stamped the cross on the forehead with red-hot iron (vide Wilson's 'Religious Sects of the Hindus', vol. I. p. 42). Works like Vṛddha-Hārta II. 44-45, the Pṛthvī-candrodaya condemn the practice of branding the body with marks of the conch &c. with red-hot iron as fit only for śūdras. The Smṛtyārtha-sāgara of Chalāri quotes passages of the Vāyupurāṇa and Viṣṇupurāṇa supporting branding. In the Kālāgnirudropaniṣad the procedure¹⁶⁰⁵ of the tripundra mark is laid down. Holy ashes are taken from the sacred fire with the five mantras 'sadyo jātam' (Tai. Ār. 10. 43-47) and they are then invoked with the mantras 'agniriti bhasma'; part of the ashes is then taken in the palm of one's hand with the mantra 'mā nastoke', (Rg. I. 114. 8) and mixed with water and therewith lines are made on the head, the forehead up to the (middle of the) eyebrows and eyes, on the chest and shoulders, after repeating 'tryāyusam Jamadagner' when applying the ashes to the forehead, 'kaśyapasya tryāyusam' when applying to the navel (or chest) and so on (the head coming last). The Sāṅkhyāyana gr. says¹⁶⁰⁶ "He makes the tripundra mark with ashes with the five formulas 'tryāyusam' &c. on his forehead, chest, right and left shoulders and then on the back; (by doing this) he studies these Vedas, one, two, three or all." The Smṛtimuktāphala¹⁶⁰⁷ (āhnikā p. 301) quotes a passage from Baudhāyana in which the words of the exhortation to the pupil returning home 'bhūtyai na pramaditavyam' occurring in the Tai. Up. I. 11 are interpreted as referring to the making

1605. Vide Sm. M. p. 301 for all details. Even now parts of a mantra are used in applying holy ashes to the forehead, to the navel, to the right and left shoulders and the head. The mantra occurs in आप. म. पा. II. 7. 2 'व्यायुषं जनदग्नेः कश्यपस्य व्यायुषम् । यद्देवानां व्यायुषं तन्मे अस्तु व्यायुषम्' ॥ वाज. सं. III. 62 has the same mantra with slight variations. About the ashes the following are repeated 'अग्निरिति भस्म वायुरिति भस्म जलमिति भस्म स्थलमिति भस्म व्योमेति भस्म सर्वं वा इदं भस्म,' quoted in नारायण's दीपिका on कालाशिरुद्र उपनिषद्.

1606. व्यायुषमिति पञ्चभिर्मन्त्रैर्ललाटे हृदये च दक्षिणस्कन्धे वामे च ततः पृष्ठे च पञ्चभु भस्मना त्रिपुण्ड्रं करोति स एषां वेदानामेकं द्वौ त्रीन् सर्वानधीते । सांख्यायनगृह्य quoted in स्मृतिशु. (आह्निक p. 303). Vide S. B. E. vol. 29 p. 76 where this passage is said to be a late addition.

1607. अथातो द्विजातीनां त्रिपुण्ड्रधारणाविधिं व्याख्यास्यामो भूत्यै न प्रमदितव्यमिति विज्ञायते । बौधायन quoted in स्मृतिशु. (आह्निक p. 301).

of the tripundra mark with ashes (*bhūti*). This is a fine example of how sectarians twist the words of ancient texts to bolster up their practices and dogmas. In the Kādambarī (para 34) Hārīta is described as ornamented by the tripundra mark of ashes. The Ācāramayūkha quotes a verse from the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa 'of him who does not bear the tripundra mark, truthfulness, *śauca*, japa, homa, pilgrimage and worship of gods—all this becomes futile' and a verse from the Smṛtiratnāvalī as to the parts of the body that are to be smeared with holy ashes, viz. the forehead, the region of the heart, navel, throat, shoulders, the joints of the arms, the back and the head. The Smṛtimuktāphala (āhnika p. 310) gives the following sage advice to the Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava sectarian writers that were guilty of running down the practices of each other 'As one God appears in the form of various deities, all should worship their (favourite) god, whether Śiva, Viṣṇu or any other, without indulging in the calumny of other deities and they should wear the pundra mark that is deemed to be pleasing to any deity without calumniating other sect marks'.¹⁶⁰⁸ The Nirṇayasindhu (II pariccheda) when dealing with the 11th day of Āṣāḍha sets out from the Rāmārcana-candrikā passages about the marking of the body with conch figure by means of heated metal pieces and also quotes the Pṛthvicandrodaya and other works that condemn such practices and remarks that one may follow the *śiṣṭas*. The ācāraratna (p. 37 a) states that votaries are of several kinds, viz. Śaivas and Vaiṣṇavas who are purely followers of the Vedic cult, Śaivas and Vaiṣṇavas who follow both Vaidika and Tāntrika practices and the same two following purely the Tāntric cult."

After bath comes *saṁdhyā* (Yāj. I. 98). This subject has been dealt with above (pp. 312-321) under Upanayana.

After *saṁdhyā* comes homa (Dakṣa II. 28 and Yāj. I. 98-99). If a brāhmaṇa took a bath in the early morning and engaged in a lengthy *saṁdhyā* prayer he may not be able to perform homa in the morning at the proper time. Homa was performed in the morning before sunrise according to one view (*anudite juhoti*) and after sunrise, according to another (*udite juhoti*); but even on the latter view, homa must be performed before the

1608. तस्मादेकस्यैवेवैश्वरस्य सर्वदेवमयत्वाद्देवतान्तरनिन्दावर्जितैरेवैश्वर आराध्यः शिवो विष्णुरन्यो वा देवः । पुण्ड्रमपि तच्चदेवतामीतिकरं पुण्ड्रान्तरनिन्दावर्जितैरेव धार्यम् । स्मृतिरु. (आह्निक प. 310).

sun rises one cubit above the horizon (Gobhila-smṛti I. 123).¹⁶⁰⁹ The evening homa is to be performed at a time when the stars clearly appear in the sky and the ruddy colour has left the western horizon (Gobhila-smṛti I. 124). Āśv. Śr. II. 2 and Āśv. gr. I. 9. 5 state the time for morning homa to be up to the end of the period of *saṅgava* (i. e. the second of the five periods of day time). Therefore some said that in order to perform homa in time one may perform the morning *samdhya* prayer even after homa.¹⁶¹⁰ It has been shown above (p. 425) that the belief was that a man owed three debts one of which, viz. that to the gods, was discharged by performance of sacrifices and that a man had to perform agnihotra (fire worship) to the end of his life. The fire to be tended was either śrauta or smārta. As to the first there were certain rules. Only a person that had attained a certain age was to kindle the śrauta fires, viz. one who had a son or had reached an age when he could have a son and whose hair was still black (i. e. who had not become middle-aged or old). There were two views on the necessity of kindling the śrauta fires. Vas. Dh. S. XI. 45-48¹⁶¹¹ says "a brāhmaṇa must necessarily kindle the three śrauta fires and offer (in them) the Darśa-Pūrṇamāsa (new moon and full moon sacrifices), the Āgrayana īṣṭi, the Cāturmāsyaś, the animal and soma sacrifices. For this is enjoined as an observance and has been lauded as a debt. For it is declared (in the Veda) 'a brāhmaṇa is born

1609. संध्याकर्मावसाने तु स्वयं होमो निधीयते । दक्ष II. 28; प्रादुष्करणमग्नीनां प्रातर्भासां च दर्शनात् । हस्तादूर्ध्वं रविर्यावाद्दिरिं हित्वा न गच्छति । तावद्धोमविधिः पुण्यो नान्योऽभ्युदितहोमिनाम् । गोभिलस्मृति I. 122-123. Manu II. 15 refers to the several views about होमकाल. समयः प्रयुज्यते in Manu is explained as the time before the sun's disc appears after the stars have become invisible. Vide स्मृतिच० I. p. 161 and चौ. गृ. सं. परिशिष्ट I. 72 for explanation of उदित, समयः प्रयुज्यते &c. The सूत्रार्थसार p. 35 says प्रातर्होमे संग्रहान्तः कालस्त्वभ्युदिते तथा । सायमस्तमिते होमकालस्तु नव नाडिकाः ॥

1610. होमं वैतानिके कृत्वा स्मार्ते कुर्याद्विचक्षणः । स्मृतीनां वेदमूलत्वात्स्मार्तं केचिदपुरा विदुः ॥ भरद्वाज quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 163; vide नित्याचारपद्धति p. 314 and संस्कारप्रकाश p. 890.

1611. अवश्यं ब्राह्मणोऽग्नीनादधीत । दर्शपूर्णमासाग्रयणेष्टिचातुर्मास्यपशुसोमैश्च यजेत । नैयमिकं होतृदणसंस्तुतं च । विज्ञायते हि त्रिभिर्ऋगैर्ऋगवाद् ब्राह्मणो जायत इति । यज्ञेन देवेभ्यः इत्येष वाद्युणो यज्या यः पुत्री ब्रह्मचर्यवानिति । वसिष्ठ XI. 45-48; vide विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 59. 4-9 for similar provisions. Manu IV. 26 explains that the Āgrayana īṣṭi is to be performed with the new grain that is brought in at the end of the rainy season (in śarad) after the old grain is consumed, that an animal sacrifice is to be performed at the beginning of the uttarāyana and of dakṣiṇāyana (i. e. twice a year) and a Soma sacrifice once a year at its beginning. Vide also Yaj. I. 125-126.

indebted in three debts, in sacrifice to the gods &c." Śābara on Jaimini V. 4. 16 expressly says that there is no particular time fixed for kindling the sacred fires and that a person may do so the very day on which the pious desire to do so arises in his mind¹⁶¹². The Trikaṇḍamaṇḍana I. 6-7 refers to the two views that *ādihāna* (kindling of śrauta fires) is *nitya* (obligatory) and the other view (discussed by Baudhāyana) that it is merely *kāmya* (to be performed only if one desires the fulfilment of certain objects). The person who had kindled the sacred fires offered his daily oblations in them. It is clear that even in very ancient times not many kindled the sacred Vedic fires. The Grhya and Dharma sūtras often contain rules referring to those who had kindled the sacred fires and to those who had not. For example, the Āśv. gr. I. 1. 4 quotes Rg. VIII. 19. 5 'the person who lays a fuel stick on fire, or throws an oblation on it or offers it the study of the Veda, or who pays adoration to Agni, (in substance) offers a good sacrifice.' Āśv. gr. then quotes a brāhmaṇa passage explaining¹⁶¹³ Rg. VIII. 19. 5 in which reliance is also placed on two more Rk verses (viz. Rg. VIII. 24. 20 and VI. 16. 47). The purpose of all this is to show that even the study of the Veda, the performing of *namaskāra* and offering of a *samidh* in the fire are equivalent to a real sacrifice. That shows that it was not obligatory on every-body to kindle the three sacred fires. But it must be said that agnihotra was highly thought of in ancient India. Vide Chāndogya Up. V. 24. 5 for a verse extolling it.

The three fires (often called Tretā) are the Āhavanīya, Gārhapatya and Dakṣiṇāgni. The Āhavanīya fire-place is a square, Gārhapatya is round (as the earth is round) and Dakṣiṇāgni is in the form of half the orb of the moon (vide Vṛddha-Gautama p. 604, Jivānanda). In the Brāhmaṇas and Śrautasūtras elaborate discussions are held about the kindling of fires (*agnyādhāna*), about the several sacrifices and the various details connected therewith. It has been decided, in view of the vastness of the subject of śrauta rites and the academic nature for modern times of the treatment of most of those rites, to pass them over

1612. नैवाधाने कश्चित्कालनियमोऽस्ति । यद्दहरेवैनं श्रद्धोपनमेत्तदहरादधीत इति । शबर on अपनयो वाधानस्य सर्वकालत्वात् । जै. V. 4. 16.

1613. यः समिधा य आहुती यो वेदेन ददाश मर्तो अग्नये । यो नमसा स्वधवरः ॥ तस्येद्वन्तो र्हयन्त आशवस्तस्य द्युम्नितमं यज्ञः । न तमहो देवकृतं कुतश्चन न मर्त्यकृतं नशत् ॥ ऋ. VIII. 19. 5-6.

in this work and to give in a separate chapter at the end of this volume only some information about the śrauta sacrifices. For about two thousand years hardly any animal or soma sacrifices have been performed (except rarely by kings, nobles and rich people). In medieval times there were many brāhmanas who performed the New and Full moon sacrifices, the Āgrayana īṣṭi and the Cāturmāsyaś. But in modern times even such *agnihotrin*s have become very rare and in certain parts of India one can hardly find a single *agnihotrin* keeping śrauta fires even among thousands of brāhmanas.

Every one who has kindled ¹⁶¹⁴ the sacred fires has to offer every morning and evening the Agnihotra (oblations of clarified butter) in the śrauta fires. Not only has one who has consecrated the three sacred fires to offer agnihotra everyday, but also every householder has to do so every day twice, in the morning and in the evening. Vide Manu IV. 25, Yāj. I. 99, Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 13. 22 and I. 4. 14. 1. ' For when a man is married, there are daily observances declared for him such as agnihotra, (honouring) guests and such other proper actions ' (Āp. Dh. S. I. 4. 14. 1). The rules about the proper time of kindling fire and offering oblations and about the material of the oblations are the same for grhya rites as in śrauta agnihotra (Āśv. gr. I. 9. 4-6). The fire in which these daily offerings are made by one who has not kindled the three śrauta fires is called aupāsana, āvasathya, aupasada, vaivāhika or (-hana), smārta or grhya or śālāgni.¹⁶¹⁵ There are various views about the time from which this fire is to be maintained. The view of the vast majority of writers is that the grhya fire is the nuptial fire which is kindled on the day of marriage by the newly married pair. We saw above (pp. 530, 557) that the Āśv. gr. (I. 8. 5) directs that when the bridegroom starts after marriage from the bride's house for his own house (whether in the same village or in

1614. अग्निहोत्रं च जुहुयादाद्यन्ते द्युनिज्ञोः सदा । मनु IV. 25.

1615. यस्मिन्नग्नौ पाणिं गृह्णीयात्स गृह्यः । खादिरगृह्य I. 5. 1 ; vide गोमिलगृ. I. 1. 20-21 ; पाणिग्रहणादिरग्निस्तमौपासनमित्याचक्षते तस्मिन्नाह्वाणि कर्माणि । हिरण्यकेशिगृ. I. 26. 1-2 ; आवसथ्याधानं दारकाले द्वायाद्यकाल एकेषाम् । पार. गृ. I. 2 ; उपयमनमभृत्यौपासनस्य परिचरणम् । पार. गृ. I. 9 ; वैवाहिकेऽग्नौ कुर्वीत गृह्यं कर्म यथाविधि । पञ्चयज्ञाविधानं च पक्तिं चान्वाहिकीं गृही ॥ मनु III. 67 ; vide या I. 97 for the word विवाहाग्निः ; एष औपसदोऽग्निर्वैवाहनो वा । तस्मिन् पाकयज्ञाः । काठकगृह्य 47. 1-2. अपरार्क p. 490 explains औपसद् as गृह्याग्निः. Vide आप. घ. सू. II. 2. 3. 16 (for औपासन). अनाहिताग्नेरपि शालाग्नौ । आश्व. गृ. II. 2. 5. हरदत्त on गौ. XI. 17 distinguishes शालाग्निं from औपासन and says it has a wider application.

another village) the nuptial fire is continually carried in a vessel (called *ukhā*) in front till he reaches his house.¹⁶¹⁶ Vide also Āp. gr. V. 14-15. The Āśv. gr. I. 9. 1-3 says 'beginning from the holding of the hand (i. e. marriage) he should worship the domestic fire himself or his wife, also his son or his daughter or pupil.¹⁶¹⁷ The worship of fire should be constantly kept up'. A man's nuptial fire may go out and he may not re-instate it through neglect or other cause or his wife may be dead and he may remain a widower. In such cases he has to offer his daily offerings in the ordinary fire on which he cooks his food (*laukika* or *pacana* fire); so that so far five kinds of fires (viz. the three śrauta ones, *aupāsana* or *grhya* and the *laukika*) are spoken of. There is another fire called 'sabhya' (which is the sixth). According¹⁶¹⁸ to Medhātithi on Manu III. 185 the sabhya fire is that which is kept burning in the hall of a rich man for the removal of cold and for the diffusion of warmth. Vide Śat. Br. (S. B. E. vol. 12, p. 302 n 1), where the translator says that the sabhya fire was kept only by ksatriyas. The Kātyāyana Śrauta sūtra IV. 9. 20 prescribes that the sabhya fire also is generated by friction like the Gārhapatya fire. Āp. Śr. sūtra IV. 4. 7 says that the sabhya fire is to be kindled in the hall (of gambling, according to the com.) to the east of the place of the āhavanīya fire. The Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 14)¹⁶¹⁹ says that a householder should maintain six fires, five, four, three, two or one, but should never remain without fire. When he keeps the *tretā*, *aupāsana*, *sabhya* and ordinary fire he will have six; when he maintains the *tretā*, *aupāsana* and *sabhya* he is called *pañcāgni*, who is among the brāhmanas that are *pañkti-pāvanas* (i. e. that sanctify the company at dinner). Vide Gaut. 15. 29, Āp. Dh. S. II. 7. 17. 22, Vas. Dh. S. III. 19, Manu III. 185, Yāj. I. 221. He who maintains *tretā* and *aupāsana* will have only four, he who maintains only *tretā*

1616. विवाहाग्निमग्रतोऽजसं नयन्ति । आश्व. गृ. I. 8. 5; समोऽप्यैतमाग्निमग्नहरन्ति । नित्यो धार्यः । आप. गृ. V. 14-15.

1617. पाणिग्रहणाद्वि गृह्यं परिचरेत्स्वयं पत्न्यपि वा पुत्रः कुमारीन्तेवासी वा । नित्या-
नुग्रहीतं स्यात् । आश्व. गृ. I. 9. 1-2.

1618. सम्भ्यो नाम यो महासाधनस्य शितापनोदार्थमेव बहुषु देशेषु व्यवह्रियते । मेधा-
on मनु III. 175; बृहसूतस्य 15th chap. p. 604 (Jīvananda part 2) defines
as 'आवसथ्यं तु ये चाग्निं पचन्ताग्निं पचक्षते । तेषां सभागतो वाह्निः सभ्य इत्यभिधीयते ।
अग्नेणाहवनीयं सभायां सभ्यः । आप. श्रौ. IV. 4. 7.

1619. गृहस्थस्तु षडग्निः स्यात्पञ्चाग्निश्चतुराग्निकः । स्याद् द्वित्र्यग्निरथैकाग्निर्नाग्निहीन
कथंचन ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 14.

will have three, he who maintains *aupāsana* and the ordinary fire will have two and one may only maintain the ordinary fire. The rites prescribed in¹⁶²⁰ the *gr̥hyasūtra* of a person's *śākhā* were to be performed in the *aupāsana*; other rites prescribed in the *smṛtis* were to be performed in the ordinary fire. But if one has no fire other than the ordinary one, every rite has to be performed in it. The under-lying idea of this emphasis on the worship of Agni seems to be that the oblations thrown into the fire reach the sun, that sends rain, from which springs corn, that is the sustenance of all beings. *Vide* Manu III. 76 (= Śāntiparva 264. 11) and Sm. C. I. p. 155, Par. M. I, part I, p. 130 for the eulogy of *agnihotra*.

There were other views about the time from which one was to begin keeping one's *gr̥hya* fire. Gaut. V. 6, Yāj. I. 97, Pār. gr. I. 2 and others refer to an optional course viz. setting up the *gr̥hya* fire at the time when one separates from other members of the family. The Śāh. gr. I. 1. 2-5 refers to four alternatives in all (including the two already referred to); the other two are: When¹⁶²¹ a pupil is about to return from his teacher's home, he may keep as his *gr̥hya* fire that fire on which he puts the last *samidh*; or a person may, if he is the eldest son, keep the fire of his father on the latter's death or of his eldest brother on the latter's death (if there is no division and the family continues joint). Baud. gr. II. 6. 17 says¹⁶²² that the *gr̥hya* fire for a person is one by which his *upanayana* is performed, that from *upanayana* to *samāvartana* the *homa* is performed only by uttering the *vyāhrtis* and with fuel sticks, from *samāvartana* to marriage with *vyāhrtis* and clarified butter, and from marriage onwards with offerings of boiled rice or barley.

1620. गार्हपत्यौपासने कुर्यात्सर्वाधानी तु लौकिके। स्मार्तं च लौकिके कार्यं श्रौतं वैतानिकाग्निषु ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 14; अनगृहीतवसथयाग्निरादायाच्चं घृतमुत्तम्। शाकलेन विधानेन जुहुयाद्लौकिकेऽनले ॥ वेदव्यासस्मृति III. 31-32

1621. भार्याद्विरग्निर्दायादिर्वा। गौ. V. 6. अभिसमावर्त्यमानो यजान्त्यां समिधमभ्यादध्यात्तमग्निमन्धीत। वैवाह्यं वा। दायाद्यकाल एके। प्रेते वा गृहपते स्वयं ज्यायान्। श्रौ. गृ. I. 1. 2-5; compare गोभिलगृ. I. 1. 12.

1622. यस्मिन्नग्नौ उपनयति तस्मिन् ब्रह्मचर्यं तस्मिन् ब्रतचर्यं तस्मिन् समावर्तनं तस्मिन् पाणिग्रहणं तस्मिन् शुद्धाग्निं कर्माणि क्रियन्ते। ... स एष उपनयनप्रभृति व्याहृतिभिः समिद्भिर्हृत आ समावर्तनात्। समावर्तनप्रभृत्याज्येन व्याहृतिभिर्हृत आ पाणिग्रहणात्। पाणिग्रहणप्रभृति द्वीहिभिर्वा यवैर्वा हस्तेनैते आहुती जुहोति अग्नये स्वाहा प्रजापतये स्वाहा इति सायम्। सूर्याय स्वाहा प्रजापतये स्वाहेति प्रातरपि। बौ. गृ. II. 6. 17, 19-21; अग्नये स्वाहेति सायं जुहुयात्सूर्याय स्वाहेति प्रातस्तूर्णी द्वितीये उभयत्र। आश्व. गृ. I. 9. 8.

The deities to whom agnihotra is offered in the morning and evening are Agni and Prajāpati (to the latter inaudibly). According to some in the morning the sun takes the place of Agni (vide Baud. gr. II. 7. 21 quoted in n. 1622 Hir. gr. I. 26. 9, Bhār. gr. III. 3, Āp. gr. VII. 21).

The oblations are to be made in the morning and evening of cooked food, but only such corn as is fit to be offered to fire as *havis* is to be used (Āśv. gr. I. 2. 1). It is either boiled rice or barley (Āp. gr. VII. 19).¹⁶²³ Gobhila-smṛti (I. 131 and III. 114) says¹⁶²⁴ that among *haviṣyas* the foremost are yavas (barley), then comes rice, but one should eschew māṣa, kodrava and gaura among corns even if nothing else is available, that if rice and barley are not available one may employ curds or milk or in their absence, *yavāgū* (gruel) or water. According to a verse quoted by Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. I. 9. 6 ten materials can be offered as *havis* into fire viz. milk, curds, *yavāgū*, clarified butter, boiled rice, husked rice, *soma*, flesh, sesame oil and water.¹⁶²⁵ Manu III. 257 specifies some articles as naturally fit for being employed as *havis*. Vide also Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 15. 12-14. Though flesh is allowed as offering in some sacrifices it cannot be employed in the morning and evening homa (vide Āśv. gr. I. 9. 6). The general rule is that when no particular material is specified for homa into fire, clarified butter is to be used as offering, and when no particular deity is mentioned, then the deity is to be Prajāpati¹⁶²⁶. There is another rule that fluid materials are to be offered into fire with the *sruva* ladle, while solid *havis* is to be offered with the right hand¹⁶²⁷.

1623. अथ सायं प्रातः सिद्धस्य हविष्यस्य जुहुयात् । आश्व. गृ. I. 2. 1; सायं प्रातरत ऊर्ध्वं हस्तैर्नैते आहुती तण्डुलैर्वर्वा जुहुयात् । आप. गृ. VII. 19.

1624. हविष्येषु यवा मुख्यास्तद्वत् ब्रीहयः स्मृताः । माषकोद्वगौरादि सर्वालाभे विवर्जयेत् ॥ अभावे ब्रीहियवयोर्दध्ना वा पयसापि वा । तदभावे यवागवा वा जुहुयादुदकेन वा ॥ गोभिलस्मृति I. 131 and III. 114; the first is quoted by अपराक p. 142 and the 2nd by स्मृतिच० I. p. 163.

1625. पयो दधि यवाश्च सर्पिरोदनतण्डुलाः । सोमो मांसं तथा तैलमापस्तानि दशैव तु ॥ quoted by नारायण on आश्व. गृ. I. 9. 6 and by नित्याचारपद्धति p. 320; vide स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 35 for a similar verse.

1626. आज्यं हव्यमनादेशे जुहोतिषु विधीयते । तन्त्रश्च (?) देवतायाश्च प्रजापतिरिति स्थितिः ॥ गोभिल I. 113.

1627. द्रव्यं सुवेण होतव्यं पाणिना कठिनं हविः । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 35. ओषध्यः सक्तवः पुष्पं काष्ठं मूलं फलं तृणम् । पतञ्जस्तेन होतव्यं नान्यत्किञ्चिदचोदनात् । बौ. गृ. शेषसूत्र I. 3. 8.

The Gobhila gr. (I. 1. 15-19) lays down that 'one is to kindle one's grhya fire (originally or if it goes out) by bringing it from the house of a vaiśya or from a frying pan or he may bring it from the house of a person who performs many sacrifices, whether he be a brāhmaṇa or rājanya or vaiśya or one may produce it by attrition; this last is holy, but does not bring prosperity. One may do as one likes¹⁶²⁸'. There are similar provisions in Śāh. gr. I. 1. 8, Pār. gr. I. 2, Āp. gr. V. 16-17. If the grhya fire goes out, the husband or the wife has to observe a fast that day as a penance (Āp. gr. V. 19).

The fire in which oblations are to be offered must be fed by plenty of dry wood, must be well kindled and smokeless, the cinders must be red-hot and it must be flaming up¹⁶²⁹. The Chān. Up. V. 24. 1 indicates that oblations were to be offered only on red hot coals. The Muṇḍaka Up. I. 2. 2 says the same. Āp. Dh. S. (I. 5. 15. 18-21), Manu IV. 53 and others lay down that one should not come very near fire when one is not pure, one should not blow on fire with the mouth (to kindle it), nor should one place it under a cot &c., one should not throw anything impure in fire, nor should one warm one's feet over it, nor should one place it towards one's feet (when one is sleeping). Gobhilasmṛti I. 135-136 says that one should not blow on fire with the hand or a winnowing basket or a *darvī* (ladle), but one may use a fan; some blow on fire with the mouth because fire was produced from the mouth and construe the words (of Manu IV. 53) 'one should not blow on fire with the mouth' as applicable to ordinary fire (i. e. one may blow with the mouth on śrauta fires¹⁶³⁰).

1628. वैश्यकुलाद्ब्राम्हणीपाद्वाग्निमाहृत्याभ्यादध्यात् । अपि वा बहुयाजिन एवागाराद् ब्राह्मणस्य वा राजन्यस्य वा वैश्यस्य वा । अपि वान्यं मथित्वाभ्यादध्यात् । पुण्यस्त्वैवानर्धुको भवतीति । यथा कामयेत तथा कुर्यात् । गोभिलगृह्य I. 1. 15-19; काठकसंहिता VIII. 12 has 'यो ब्राह्मणो वा वैश्यो वा पुष्टोऽसुर इव स्यात्तस्य गृहादाहरेद्यैव सा पुष्टिर्दत्तं तद्वचन्धे'.

1629. बहुशुष्केन्धने वाग्नौ सुसमिद्धे विधूमके । साङ्गारे लेलिहाने च होतव्यं नान्यथा क्वचित् ॥ स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 35; vide स्मृतिच० I. p. 163 for similar quotations from several smṛtis and vide गोभिलस्मृति I. 133-134.

1630. The पुरुषसूक्त (Rg. X. 90. 13) says 'सुखादिन्द्रश्चाग्निश्च प्राणाद्वायुरजायत'. The गृह्यसंग्रहपरिशिष्ट (Z. D. M. G. vol. 35 p. 541) I. 70 requires that the blowing should be with the mouth 'सुखेनोपधमेदाग्निं सुखाद्द्वेषोऽध्यजायत' and not with a piece of cloth nor with the hand nor with a winnowing basket. Vide हरदत्त on आप. घ. सू. I. 5. 15. 20 for several explanations about blowing with the mouth on fire.

The daily homa must be offered by the man himself and Dakṣa says that the merit secured by performing homa by one-self cannot be secured by getting it performed through another, but he adds that homa performed on one's behalf by a priest, by one's son, teacher, brother, sister's son, or son-in-law is equivalent to homa made by oneself.¹⁶³¹ We saw above (n. 1617) that the Āśv. gr. (I. 9. 1) allows the wife, a son, an unmarried daughter or a pupil of the householder to attend to the worship of the householder's gr̥hya fire. Śān. gr. II. 17. 3 is to the same effect. The Smṛtyarthasāra (p. 34) adds that the wife and the daughter should perform all the acts in homa except *pariyukṣaṇa*. Āp. Dh. S. II. 6. 15. 15-16¹⁶³² and Manu XI. 36-37 lay down that the wife, an unmarried daughter, a young married daughter, one who has studied little, a stupid person, a diseased person or one whose upanayana has not been performed should not offer agnihotra (on behalf of the householder); if they do so, they and he both fall into hell; therefore the person to offer agnihotra for another should be one proficient in śrauta sacrifices and master of the Vedas. These passages have been explained by the Sm. C. (I. p. 161) and other writers as applicable to the performance of śrauta sacrifices only; while as regards the daily homa in the gr̥hya fire the wife and others specified by Āśv. are held to be competent if the sacrificer is ill or has gone abroad. Haradatta (on Āśv. gr. I. 9. 1-2) says that either the husband or the wife must always be near the gr̥hya fire.¹⁶³³ Laghu-Āśvalāyana (I. 69) says that one who has kindled the gr̥hya fire should not leave the boundary of his village without his wife, as the texts lay down that homa is to be performed in the place where the wife stays. A brāhmaṇa¹⁶³⁴ may go abroad on business, leaving his fire in charge of his wife and after appointing a priest; but he should not stay away long without cause. A priest should not offer homa on behalf of a householder, when both the spouses are absent, because such homa by him in the

1631. स्वयं होमे फलं यत्क्याप्तं तदन्येन जायते ॥ ऋत्विक् पुत्रो शुश्रूक्षता भागिनेयोऽथ विद्वपतिः । ऐभिरेव हुतं यत् तद्धुतं स्वयमेव तु ॥ दक्ष II. 28-29, quoted by अपरार्क p. 125.

1632. पर्युक्षणवर्जं पत्नी जुहुयात्कुमारी च । स्मृत्यर्थसार p. 34. न स्त्री जुहुयात् । नाहुतेतः । आप. घ. सू. II. 6. 15. 15-16.

1633. अन्यतरोवश्यमग्निसमीपे तिष्ठेत् । नोभौ सह प्रसेतानित्यर्थः । हरदत्त on आश्व. सू. I. 9. 1-2.

1634. निक्षिप्याग्निं स्वदारेषु परिकल्प्यात्विजं तथा । प्रसेतकार्यवाद् विप्रो द्रुयैव न चिरं वसेत् ॥ quoted in the स्मृतिच I. p. 161.

absence of both is useless.¹⁶³⁵ If an householder has several wives of the same caste or wives of different castes, the texts lay down who is to be associated with him in religious rites. These rules have already been set out above (pp. 559-60). 'When a householder's wife dies he should not give up his Vedic fires, but that (i. e. the Agnihotra) should be performed till one's life by means of an *upādhi* (i. e. by marrying another savarna wife or by associating with himself an asavarna wife)' says Gobhila *smṛti*¹⁶³⁶ III. 9. Gobhila then refers to the story of Rāma, who performed sacrifices with a golden image of his discarded wife Sītā kept by his side. In spite of Gobhila's dictum, allowing a golden image or a kuśa representative of an absent or dead wife, Aparārka condemns the practice as opposed to the rule laid down by Satyāśādhā in his *śrauta sūtra* 'there¹⁶³⁷ is no *pratinidhi* (representative or substitute) in the case of the owner (i. e. *yajamāna*), the wife, the son, the (proper) place and time (for an act), fire, the deity (to be invoked), of a rite and of a text (directed to be employed in a rite).' His argument is that the wife's co-operation is required in such actions as looking at the clarified butter, in unhusking grains &c. and as an image of kuśa or gold cannot perform these acts, the image cannot be employed in place of the wife. The Sm. C. replies to this argument by saying that the words of Satyāśādhā have reference only to a human substitute for a wife and that other *smṛtis* allow a substitute made of gold or kuśa. For example, *Vṛddha-Hārīta*¹⁶³⁸ expressly prescribes that a man may perform *agnihotra* and the offering of the five daily sacrifices throughout his life in the company of his wife's image made of kuśa grass (if the wife be dead &c.). If a person loses his wife or if he goes abroad or

1635. असमक्षं तु दम्पत्योर्होतव्यं न त्विगादिना । द्वयोरप्यसमक्षं तु भवेद्भुतमनर्थकम् ॥ गोभिलस्मृति III. 1, quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 161.

1636. मृतायामपि भार्यायां वैदिकार्थिं न हि त्यजेत् । उपाधिनापि तत्कर्म यावज्जीवं समापयेत् ॥ रामोपि कृत्वा सौवर्णीं सीतां पत्नीं यशस्विनीम् । ईजे यज्ञैर्बहुविधैः सह भ्रातृभिरर्चितैः ॥ गोभिलस्मृति III. 9-10. These are explained at length by अपरार्क pp. 114-15 and the स्मृतिचन्द्रिका I. p. 167.

1637. न स्वामित्वस्य भार्यायाः पुत्रस्य देशस्य कालस्याग्नेर्देवतायाः कर्मणः शब्दस्य च प्रतिनिधिर्विद्यते । सत्यापाढश्रौत III. 1.; compare 'स्वामिनोऽग्नेर्देवतायाः शब्दात्कर्मणः प्रतिषेधाच्च प्रतिनिधिर्विद्यते' आप. श्रौ. 24. 4. 1; जैमिनि VI. 3. 18-21.

1638. कृत्वा कुशमयीं पत्नीं यावज्जीवमवन्दिताः । जुहुयादग्निहोत्रं तु पञ्चयज्ञादिकं तथा ॥ वृद्धहारीत XI. 214.

becomes *patita* his agnihotra may be continued by his son ¹⁶³⁹ (Atri, verse 108). The Ait. Br. (32. 8) also says that even one who has lost his wife (or who has no wife) should perform agnihotra, as the Veda orders a man to offer sacrifice. ¹⁶⁴⁰

Not kindling Vedic fires when one was competent to do so and giving up śrauta and smārta fires were looked upon as upapātakas by Yāj. III. 234, 239, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 37. 28 and 54. 13. The Vas. Dh. S. III. 1 says ¹⁶⁴¹ that those who do not study or teach the Veda or who do not maintain the sacred fires become equal to śūdras. Gārgya as quoted in the Sm. C. (I. p. 156) avers that if a *dvija* remains after marriage without fires even for a moment (when he has the power and authority to maintain them) he becomes a *vrātya* and *patita*. The Muṇḍaka Up. I. 2. 3 declares that if a person fails to perform the Darśa-Pūrṇamāsa and other sacrifices and Vaiśvadeva, his seven holy worlds are destroyed. The Tai. S. I. 5. 2. 1 and the Kāthaka S. IX. 2, declare 'He who makes the (sacred) fires go out (be extinguished) is indeed a killer of a hero in the eyes of the gods and brāhmanas who are anxiously devoted to ṛta (righteousness or correct order) did not formerly eat food at his house'.

The texts (such as Yāj. I. 99) prescribe *japa* (muttering of Gāyatri and other holy Vedic mantras) as part of saṁdhyā adoration. This has been already referred to above (p. 313). Yāj. I. 99 speaks of *japa* (of verses addressed to the Sun) after morning homa and then in I. 101 again prescribes *japa* after the midday bath of philosophical texts (like the Upaniṣads, as stated in Gaut. 19. 12 and Vas. Dh. S. 22. 9). Vas. Dh. S. 28. 10-15 are verses which mention several hymns principally of the Rgveda, by reciting which (inaudibly) several times a man becomes pure. These verses occur in Śaṅkhaśmṛti chap. XI (with some variations) and in Viṣṇu Dh. S. 56 (in prose). Some

1639. भार्यामरणपक्षे वा देवान्तरगतेपि वा । अधिकारी भवेत्पुनस्तथा पातकसंयुते ॥ अत्रि 108.

1640. तस्मादपत्नीकोपि अग्निहोत्रमाहरेत् । तद्देवाभियज्ञगाथा गीयते । यजेत्सौत्रामण्यामपत्नीकोप्यसोमपः । मातापितृभ्यामनुष्ठापार्थाद्यजेति वचनाच्छ्रुतिः ॥ ऐ. ब्रा. 32. 8.

1641. अश्रोत्रिया अननुवाक्या अनग्नयो वा मृदुसधर्मणो भवन्ति । वसिष्ठ III. 1; कृतदारो न वै तिष्ठेत्क्षणमप्यग्निना विना । तिष्ठेत् चेद् द्विजो ब्राह्म्यस्तथा च पतितो भवेत् ॥ गार्ग्य quoted by स्मृतिचं I. p. 156 ; वीरहा वा एष देवानां योऽग्निमुद्रासयते । न वा एतस्य ब्राह्मणा क्रतायवः पुराक्षमन् । तै. सं. I. 5. 2.; काठकसंहिता IX. 2 (reads the words as वीरहा मुत्सादयते).

of these Vedic texts are well known, such as Aghamarṣana (Rg. X. 190. 1-3), Pāvamāni verses (Rg. IX), Śatarudriya (Tai. S. IV. 5. 1-11), Trisuparna (Tai. Ār. X. 48-50) &c. Manu II. 87, Vas. 26. 11, Śaṅkhasmṛti XII. 28, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 55. 21 say that a brāhmaṇa attains the highest perfection by *japa* alone, even if he does not do anything else. Gobhila smṛti II. 17 says that one should inaudibly repeat as much of the Veda from the beginning as one can and that *japa* may be performed before *tarpaṇa* or after the morning homa or at the end of vaiśvadeva and that it constitutes brahmayaજ્ઞા (II. 28-29). Viṣṇu Dh. S. (64. 36-39) avers that *japa* should comprise sacred hymns, particularly the Gāyatri and Puruṣasūkta, as nothing else is superior to these.¹⁶⁴² *Japa* is of three kinds, *vācika* (audibly uttered), *upāṁśu* (inaudibly uttered) and *mānasa* (mentally revolved), each succeeding one being ten times superior to each preceding one (Laghu-Hārīta¹⁶⁴³ chap. IV, p. 186, Jivānanda I). *Vide* Manu II. 85 (= Vas. 26. 9, Śaṅkha XII. 29). *Japa* is one of the removers of sin (Gaut. 19. 11). *Japa* is to be performed sitting on a seat of kuśa grass, either in the house, or on a river bank, or in a cowpen, or in a fire room or at tīrthas or before images of gods or before an image of Viṣṇu, each succeeding place being many times superior to each preceding one.¹⁶⁴⁴ One is not to speak while engaged in *japa*. A brahmachārī or a householder who has consecrated sacred fires should mutter the Gāyatri 108 times, while a *vānaprastha* and *yati* should repeat it more than 1000 times. *Vide* Manu II. 101 also about the extent of the time to be devoted to *japa*. When in the middle ages Vedic learning declined and Purāṇas came to the fore, the writers of the digests stated that one who has studied the whole Veda should repeat daily from the beginning of the Veda as much as he could; if one has studied only a portion of the Veda, then one should recite in his *japa* the Puruṣasūkta (Rg. X. 90) and similar hymns and a brāhmaṇa who knows only the

1642. स्नातश्च पवित्राणि यथाशक्ति जपेत् । विशेषतस्तु सावित्रीमवश्यं जपेत्पुरुषसूक्तं च । नैताभ्यामधिकमस्ति । विष्णुधर्मसूत्र 64. 36-39.

1643. The verses of Laghu-Hārīta about three kinds of *japa* are quoted in the Smṛticandrikā I. p. 149 from Nṛsiṃhapurāṇa (chap. 58. 78-81).

1644. *Vide* स्मृतिच. I. p. 150 गृह. र. p. 241 quoting the verses गृहे त्वेकमुणं जप्यं &c.

Gāyatrī should repeat the texts of the purāṇas.¹⁶⁴⁵ Vṛddha-Hārīta (VI. 33, 45, 163, 213) prescribes that the mantra of 6 letters (om namo Viṣṇave), eight letters (om namo Vāsudevāya) or of twelve letters (om namo bhagavate Vāsudevāya) should be repeated 1008 or 108 times. The counting of the mantra as repeated so many times has to be done by means of one's fingers (except the thumb) or by drawing lines (on the ground or walls &c.), or by telling the beads of a rosary, as japa without counting the number is fruitless.¹⁶⁴⁶ Śāṅkha-smṛti (chap. XII. in prose) lays down that the rosary should have beads of gold or precious stones or pearls or crystal or *rudrākṣa*, padmākṣa (lotus seed) or putrajīvaka or a man may count by knots of kuśa grass or by bending the fingers of the left hand.¹⁶⁴⁷ Brhat-Parāśara V. p. 85 and Laghu-Vyāsa (Jivānanda part II. p. 375) contain similar provisions about akṣamālā and counting of japa. They add 'indrākṣa' to the different kinds of beads. The rosary should have 108 beads (this is the best) or 54 (middling) or 27 (this is the lowest number of beads in a rosary).¹⁶⁴⁸ Kālidāsa (in his Raghuvamśa XI. 66) mentions that the hero Paraśurāma had on his right ear a rosary of akṣa seeds. Bāṇa (Kādambari para 37) speaks of counting by means of rings of rudrākṣas. Vide Sm. C. I. pp. 152-153, Par. M. I. part I, pp. 308-311, Madanapārijāta p. 80, Āhnikaprakāśa pp. 326-328 for further details about the rosary.

After homa and japa one may spend some time in attending to or looking at auspicious things, such as seeing one's elders, looking at a mirror or in clarified butter, arranging and decorating his hair, applying collyrium to the eye, touching

1645. अत्र च समस्तवेदाध्ययनवता आदावारभ्य वेदपाठेन स्वाध्यायः करणीयः । एकदेशाध्यायिना पुरुषसूक्तादिपाठेन सावित्रीमात्राध्यायिना पुराणपाठेनेति व्यवस्थेति पारिजातः । शृङ्ग. र. p. 249.

1646. असंख्यतं तु यज्जप्तं सर्वं तन्निष्फलं भवेत् । अङ्गिरसु quoted in कृत्यरत्नाकर p. 64 ; बृहत्पराशर p. 85 'असंख्यमासुरं यस्मात्तस्मात्तद्गणयेद्ब्रुवम् ।

1647. कुशशय्यामासीनः कुशोत्तरीयवाच कुशपवित्रपाणिः प्राङ्मुखः सूर्याभिमुखो वाऽक्षमालासुपादाय देवताध्यायी जपं कुर्यात् । सुवर्णमणिमुक्ता-स्फटिक-पद्माक्ष-रुद्राक्ष-युत्रजीवकानामन्यतमेनादाय मालां कुर्यात् । कुशग्रन्थिं कृत्वा वामहस्तोपयामैर्वा गणयेत् । शङ्खस्मृति XII. 4-6 quoted by अपरार्क p. 47, स्मृतिच० I. 148, परा. मा. I. part 1, p. 303, आह्निकप्रकाश p. 312.

1648. अष्टोत्तरशतं कुर्याच्चतुःपञ्चाशिकां तथा । सप्तविंशतिका कार्या ततो नैवाधमा हि सा ॥ ब्रह्मा quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 153, परा. मा. I. part 1 p. 309 (ascribed to प्रजापति).

dūrvā¹⁶⁴⁹ &c. *Vide* Manu IV. 152 quoted above (p. 646). What objects a man should see on getting up has already been stated (p. 648). According to Nārada (prakīṛṇaka vv. 54-55) there are eight maṅgala objects viz. a brāhmaṇa, a cow, fire, gold, clarified butter, the sun, water and the king and if one sees, bows to or circumambulates these, one's life is lengthened.¹⁶⁵⁰ The Vāmana-purāṇa (14. 35-37) mentions numerous objects that are auspicious and that one should touch or see before going out.¹⁶⁵¹ The Matsyapurāṇa 243 enumerates in 26 verses numerous auspicious and inauspicious objects (these are quoted in Gr. R. pp. 553-554). Viṣṇu Dh. S. 23. 58 enumerates six objects derived from the cow as auspicious. *Vide* Ādiparva 29. 34, Dronaparva 127. 14 (for touching eight maṅgalas), Śānti 40. 7, Anuśāsana 126. 18 and 131. 8. According to the Viṣṇu Dh. S. 63. 26 one should start on a journey after seeing such objects as fire, a brāhmaṇa, *hetaera*, a jar full of water, a mirror, a banner, a parasol, palaces, fans, chowries &c. Viṣṇu Dh. S. 63. 27-31 states that when, on leaving one's house, one sees certain persons or objects one should return to the house and then restart viz. a drunkard, a lunatic, a cripple, one who has vomited or has undergone a purge, one who is completely shaved, one with dirty clothes, one having matted hair, a dwarf, one wearing orange-coloured clothes, an ascetic &c.

The performance of the duties of śauca, dantadhāvana, snāna, saṁdhyā, homa, japa would occupy the first of the eight parts of the day. In the second¹⁶⁵² part of the day a brāhmaṇa householder was to go over and to revise his Vedic studies and to collect fuel sticks, flowers, kuśa &c. (Dakṣa II. 33, 35, Yāj. I. 99). This subject of Veda study has already been dealt with above (pp. 351-354). In the third part of the day the

1649. देवकार्यं ततः कृत्वा गुरुमङ्गलवीक्षणम् । दक्ष II. 30; आचान्तश्च पुमान्कुर्यात्ततः केशमसाधनम् । आदर्शाजनमङ्गल्यदूर्वाद्यालम्भनानि च ॥ विष्णुपुराण quoted in सह. र. p. 183.

1650. लोकैऽस्मिन्मङ्गलान्यद्यौ ब्राह्मणो गौर्हृताशनः । हिरण्यं सर्पिरादित्य आपो राजा तथाष्टमः ॥ नारद (प्रकीर्णक 54) quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 168.

1651. होमं च कृत्वालम्भं ह्युभानां ततो बहिर्निर्गमनं प्रशस्तम् । दूर्वां च सर्पिर्दधि सोदुकुम्भं धेनुं सवत्साद्युषं सुवर्णम् । मृद्धोमयं स्वस्तिकमक्षताश्च लाजा मधु ब्राह्मणकन्यकाश्च । श्वेतानि पुष्पाणि तथा शर्मां च हृताशनं चन्द्रनमर्कविम्बम् । अश्वत्थवृक्षं च समालभेत ततश्च कुर्यान्नृजजातिधर्मां । वामनपुराण 14. 35-36 quoted in स्मृतिच. I. p. 168, सह. र. p. 187.

1652. द्वितीये च तथा भागे वेदाभ्यासो विधीयते । ... समित्युष्पकुशादीनां स कालः परिकीर्तितः । दक्ष II. 33 and 35; वेदार्थानधिगच्छेच्च शास्त्राणि विविधानि च । या. I. 99.

householder was to work and find out the means of maintaining those dependent on him (Dakṣa II. 35). The different ways of maintaining oneself in the case of brāhmaṇas have already been spoken of above (pp. 105-134). Gaut. IX. 63, Yāj. I. 100, Manu IV. 33, Viṣṇu 63. 1 and others say that a brāhmaṇa householder should approach a king or other rich person for the wherewithal to maintain his family. The persons whom every one must maintain have already been pointed out on p. 569 (Dakṣa II. 36). In the case of the well-to-do, there are other persons who should be maintained viz. agnates and cognates, one who is without means, helpless or has taken shelter¹⁶⁵³. In this world only that man may be said to live on whom many depend for their livelihood; other men who only fill their own belly are really dead, though living (Dakṣa II. 40).

In the fourth part¹⁶⁵⁴ of the day (i. e. before noon) one was to have the mid-day bath (with tarpaṇa) and then the mid-day saṁdhyā prayer and devapūjā &c. (Dakṣa II. 43 and Yāj. I. 100). Those who bathe twice (in the morning and at noon) will strictly follow the routine sketched above in Dakṣa, Yāj. and others. But most of the brāhmaṇas bathe only once either in the morning or before noon. The principal matters to be described in connection with the bath before noon are *tarpaṇa* of gods, sages and pitṛs; devapūjā and the five daily yajñas. These will now be described in detail.

Tarpaṇa—(satiating by offering water). As stated in Manu II. 176, every day one has to perform tarpaṇa of gods, sages and pitṛs. The water to be offered to gods is poured by that part of the right hand which is called *devatīrtha* and that for the pitṛs by the pitṛ-tīrtha. A person was to perform tarpaṇa according to the gr̥hyasūtra of the Vedic śākhā which he or his ancestors studied. There is a good deal of divergence among the several gr̥hyasūtras. Here the procedure of tarpaṇa prescribed

1653. ज्ञातिर्वन्धुजनः क्षीणस्तथानाथः समाश्रितः । अन्योपि धनयुक्तस्य पोष्यवर्ग उदाहृतः ॥ दक्ष II. 36-37.

1654. चतुर्थेऽह्नेऽथ भागे स्नानार्थं मुदमाहरेत् । तिलपुष्पकुशार्दींश्च स्नायाच्चाकुञ्चिमे जले । दक्ष II. 43 (quoted by अपरार्क p. 128); स्नात्वा देवान्पितृन् चैव तर्पयेद्दर्शयेत्-सथा ॥ या. I. 100, on which the Mit. remarks ततो मध्याह्ने शास्त्रोक्तविधिना नद्यादिषु स्नात्वा देवान् स्वयङ्मुखान् पितृन् च चकारादृषींश्च देवादितिथेन तर्पयेत् । तदनन्तरं गन्धपुष्पाक्षतैर्देहिहिरहिरण्यगर्भप्रभृतीनामन्यतमं यथावासनमुग्रयुजःसाममन्त्रैस्तत्प्रकाशकैः स्वनामभिर्वा चतुर्थ्यन्तैर्नमस्कारयुक्तैराराधयेद्यथोक्तविधिना.

by the Āśv. gr. (III. 4. 1-5) will be first set out. In the Devatātarpaṇa the following deities are enumerated and one has to add the words 'tṛpyatu', 'tṛpyetām', or 'tṛpyantu' with each devatā according as it is one deity, two deities or more and offer water to each (e. g. 'Prajāpatīs-tṛpyatu, Brahmā tṛpyatu, Dyāvāprthivī tṛpyetām' &c.). The deities are 31 viz. Prajāpati, Brahmā, Vedas, devas, ṛsis, all metres, omkāra, vaṣaṭkāra, vyāhrtis, the Gāyatrī, sacrifices (yajñas), heaven and earth, the air (antarikṣa), days and nights, the Sāṅkhyas, siddhas, oceans, the rivers, the mountains, the fields, herbs, trees, Gandharvas and Apsarases, snakes, birds, cows, sādhyas, vipras, yakṣas, the rakṣases, the bhūtas (beings) that have these (rakṣas) at the end. In modern times the fields, herbs, trees, Gandharvas and Apsarases are put in one compound word and form only one devatā, while after bhūtas there is a separate deity 'evam-antāni tṛpyantu'. Haradatta on Āśv. gr. III. 3. 2 refers to the view of some that take 'evam-antāni' as a separate mantra but his opinion was that the phrase 'evam-antāni' only described the preceding devatās and that the devatās stopped at 'rakṣāṃsi'. He further adds that the tarpaṇa to these was done by the prajāpatya tīrtha (of the hand).

The sages to whom water is offered are divided into two groups. The first group contains twelve sages and when offering water to these the sacred thread is worn in the nivṛta form. The twelve sages are those of the hundred ṛks, the middle ṛsis (i. e. of maṇḍalas 2 to 9 of the R̥gveda), Ṛtsamada, Viśvāmītra, Vāmadeva, Atri, Bharadvāja, Vasiṣṭha, Pragāthas, the Pāvamāni hymns, sages of the short hymns and those of the long hymns (the tarpaṇa formula will be 'śatarcinas-tṛpyantu, mādhyamās-tṛpyantu, Ṛtsamadas-tṛpyantu &c.). It will be noticed that the sages from Ṛtsamada to Vasiṣṭha are the seers of maṇḍalas 2 to 7 of the R̥gveda. The Pragāthas stand for the eighth maṇḍala of which the first hymn is ascribed in the Anukramāṇī to Pragātha of the Kaṇva gotra and the rest of the eighth maṇḍala is ascribed to various scions of the Kaṇva gotra. The verses of the ninth maṇḍala are called Pāvamānyah; but as it is a tarpaṇa of sages, we rather expect the form pāvamānāh as in the Sāṅkhyāyana gṛhya IV. 10. 'Śatarcinaḥ' refers to the sages of the first maṇḍala, and 'kṣudrasūktāḥ' and 'mahāsūktāḥ' to sages of the tenth maṇḍala. Water is offered to these sages by the *daiva tīrtha*. Then there is a second group of sages to whom water is offered by a person who wears his sacred

thread in the *prācināvīta* form (i. e. it is suspended over the right shoulder and under the left arm). There are two sub-groups here. In the first the verbal forms 'tṛpyantu' or 'tṛpyatu' are used with the nominative of the words for the sage; i. e. 'Sumantu-Jaimini-Vaiśampāyana-Paila-sūtra-bhāṣya-Bhārata-Mahābhārata-Dharmācāryās tṛpyantu';¹⁶⁵⁵ 'Jānanti-Bāhavi-Gārgya-Gautama-Śākalya-Bābhavya-Māṇḍavya-Māṇḍūkeyās tṛpyantu'; 'Gārgi-Vācaknavi tṛpyatu, Vāḍavā-Prātithēyi tṛpyatu, Sulabhā-Maitreyi tṛpyatu'. These together are five sentences. It is remarkable that in this list three women are mentioned as sages (Gārgi, Vāḍavā and Sulabhā). Among the other sages the first four are frequently mentioned in the Mahābhārata as the pupils of Vyāsa who taught them the Vedas (vide Sabhāparva 4. 11 and Śānti 328. 26-27 where all four are named). For chronological purposes it is important to note that the Āśv. gr. knew teachers of sūtras, bhāṣyas, of the Bhārata and also the Mahābhārata and of Dharma. In the second sub-group there are 17 single sages and the 18th is a miscellaneous offering to all other ācāryas. The names of the 17 sages occur in the accusative and after each the word 'tarpayāmi' is to be uttered (i. e. Kaḥolaṃ tarpayāmi, Kauṣitakam tarpayāmi.....Āśvalāyanam tarpayāmi). These 17 sages are: Kaḥola, Kauṣitaka, Mahākauṣitaka, Paingya, Mahāpaingya, Suyajña, Sāṅkhyāyana, Aitareya, Mahaitareya, Śākala, Bāṣkala, Sujātavaktra, Audavāhi, Mahaudavāhi, Saujāmi, Śaunaka, Āśvalāyana. The 18th is 'may all the other ācāryas be satiated' (ye cānye ācāryās-te sarve tṛpyantu). All these sages are connected with the Rgveda, its Brāhmaṇas, its Āraṇyakas and other related works like the Prātisākhya sūtra (of which Śaunaka is said to be the author). It is interesting to note that Āśvalāyana himself is named as the last teacher in tarpana. Śaunaka is said to be the teacher of Āśvalāyana.¹⁶⁵⁶ In modern times in the Deccan water is offered twice to each sage or group of sages.

Āśv. gr. III. 4. 5 is very brief as to pitṛtarpana 'after satiating the pitṛs with water, each generation separately, he returns to his house and whatever he gives then becomes the fee' (of the

¹⁶⁵⁵ The Śāntiparva (350. 11-12) shows that Sumantu, Jaimini, Vaiśampāyana and Paila were along with Śuka, the son of Vyāsa, the pupils of Vyāsa.

¹⁶⁵⁶ Vide Introduction to Āśvalāyana grhya in S. B. E. vol. 29, p. 153 ff.

Brahmayajña of which tarpaṇa is a constituent part). In modern times the deceased ancestors and relatives to whom water is offered are stated below. Water is offered to each thrice (except to women ancestors other than the mother, grand-mother and the great-grandmother) by the pitṛ-tīrtha and the relationship, the gotra and the name of each are recited when doing so. For example, water is offered to the deceased father in the form, 'I offer svadhā and bow to and satiate my father, so and so by name, whose gotra was so and so and who has attained the form of Vasu' (asmatpitaram amukaśarmāṇam amuka-gotraṁ vasurūpaṁ svadhānamas tarpayāmi). The ancestors and relatives to whom water is offered, if they are dead, are in order:—father, paternal grandfather and great-grandfather; mother, paternal grand-mother and great-grandmother; step-mother; maternal grand-father (with maternal grand-mother, sapatnikam being used with 'mātāmaham'), maternal great-grand-father and maternal great-great-grand-father (with their wives); one's wife; one's son (or sons, if several are dead already and with his wife or their wives that are dead); daughter (with her husband, if both are dead); uncle (with his wife, if dead); maternal uncle (with his wife, if dead); brother (with wife); paternal aunt (with husband); maternal aunt (with husband); sister (with husband); father-in-law (with his wife and son, if they are dead); guru (father as teacher of the Gāyatri and Veda); pupil. In the case of grand-fathers and grand-mothers they are described as 'rudrarūpa' and the great-grand-fathers and great-grand-mothers as 'ādityarūpa'. The three ancestors of the mother with their wives are respectively vasurūpa, rudrarūpa and ādityarūpa¹⁶⁵⁷. The names of women ancestors have the affix 'dā' added and all persons both male and female other than those specified above are described as 'vasurūpa'.

A few points of divergence will be noticed. Haradatta on Āśv. gr. III. 3. 6 notes that some do not include the mother and maternal relations in the daily tarpaṇa, and that according to the established practice in his day the tarpaṇa formulæ did not include the names and the gotra of the relatives. Most sūtras

1657. Vide Manu III. 284 for the terms Vasurūpa, Rudrarūpa and Ādityarūpa. हरदत्त on आश्व. गृ. III. 3. 6 says 'मातृणां मातामहादीनां मातामह्यादीनां च तर्पणमिच्छन्ति। तत्र विप्रतिपत्तिः। केचित्पित्रादीनां नाम्ना तर्पणमिच्छन्ति। देवदत्त यज्ञदत्त विष्णुमित्रमिति। एवं मातादीनामपि। प्रसिद्धस्त्वाचारः पितरं तर्पयामीति।'

do not say that the names and gotras of the relatives are to be repeated in daily tarpana. The words 'svadhā namas' do not occur in many sūtras, but some do contain them (e. g. Baud. Dh. S. II. 5. 184 ff., Vaik. I. 4). The devatās of tarpana differ in each sūtra. The Śān. gr. (IV. 9) which belongs to the Rgveda just as Āśvalāyana's does, enumerates the deities differently in the beginning (it has Agni, Vāyu, Sūrya, Viṣṇu, Prajāpati, Virūpākṣa, Sahasrākṣa &c.). Its order of sages is somewhat different and it adds some names such as Śākapūni, Gautami &c. The Baud. Dh. S. II. 5 contains the most elaborate tarpana of all sūtras. It puts 'om' before each devatā, ṛṣi and pitṛ. It includes not only many more deities than elsewhere, but includes several names of the same deity (e. g. Vināyaka, Vakratuṇḍa, Hastimukha, Ekadanta; Yama, Yamarāja, Dharma, Dharmarāja, Kāla, Nīla, Vaivasvata &c.). Among ṛṣis it includes many sūtrakāras like Kaṇva, Baudhāyana, Āpastamba, Satyāśādhā, and also Yājñavalkya, Vyāsa. The Hir. gr. II. 19. 20, Baud. gr. III. 9, Bhāradvāja gr. III. 9-11 contain long and interesting lists of deities and particularly of sages.

If a man has no time for this lengthy tarpana the Dharma-sindhu and other digests prescribe an extremely brief one, viz. he repeats two verses and offers water thrice. The verses are 'may the gods, sages, pitṛs, human beings, from Brahmā up to a blade of grass, be satiated and also all the pitṛs, the mother and the maternal grand-father and the rest, may this water mixed with sesame be for the crores of families of bygone ages residing in the seven dvīpas from the world of Brahmā downwards'.

The Snānasūtra (3rd kaṇḍikā) of Kātyāyana attached to the Pār. gr. contains a description of tarpana. Like the Baud. Dh. S. it lays down that 'om' is to be uttered before the name of every deity (devatā) and 'trpyatām' (or trpyantām if the word denoting the deity is in the plural) is the verbal form employed. The deities are only 28 and slightly differ from those of Āśv. The group of sages is made up of only Sanaka, Sanandana, Sanātana, Kapila, Āsuri, Voḍhu, and Pañcasikha (Kapila, Āsuri and Pañcasikha are according to the Sāṅkhya-kārikā the names of the founders of the Sāṅkhya philosophy and stand in the relation of teacher and pupil). Then (after the ṛṣitarpana), the householder is to mix sesame in water and wear the sacred thread under the left arm and suspend it from the right shoulder and offer the water to Kavyavād Anala

(fire), Soma, Yama, Aryaman, Agnisvāttas, Somapas, Barhiṣads¹⁶⁵⁸. Offerings of water mixed with sesame are to be made thrice to each of the above with joined hands (*jalāñjali*) and this is to be done by all householders even if the father be living. The remaining part of *tarpaṇa* (viz. *pitṛtarpaṇa*) is to be done only by him whose father is dead. Gobhila-smṛti II. 18-20, Matsyapurāṇa 102. 14-21 are very similar to the Snāna-sūtra. According to Āśvalāyana and others water is offered with the right hand only while according to Kātyāyana and others water is offered with both hands.¹⁶⁵⁹ The Sm. C. I. p. 191 says that the householder should follow his grhyasūtra and if there is nothing in it on this point there is an option. Kārṣṇājini prescribes that in śrāddha and marriage only the right hand is employed in making an offering or gift, but in *tarpaṇa* both hands (made into an *añjali*) are employed. One¹⁶⁶⁰ *añjali* of water is offered to each of the gods, two to Sanaka and other sages and three to each of the *pitṛs*. When *tarpaṇa* is performed while the householder is still in the water with his wet clothes on, he offers the water in the stream itself; but when he wears dry clothes and performs *tarpaṇa*, then he is to let fall the handfuls of water in a pure vessel of gold, silver, copper, bronze, but not in an earthen one; or he may let the water fall on the ground covered with kuśas (Sm. C. I. p. 192). There were several views on this point (*vide* Gr. R. pp. 263-264). In modern times daily *tarpaṇa* has become very rare. Only a few even among the orthodox or priestly brāhmaṇas and among those who have studied the several śāstras (such as grammar

1658. Yoga-Yājñavalkya quoted by Aparārka pp. 138-139 gives the same names of devatās and of the divine *pitṛs* as the Snānasūtra. Vide Manu III. 195-199 for अग्निष्वात्ताः, सोमपाः and बरिषद्ः that are all *pitṛs* of various kinds. बृहत्पराशर 3rd chap. p. 74 (Jivānanda, part 2) says that all from Kavyavād Anala to Barhiṣads are divine *pitṛs* (*divyāḥ pitaraḥ*). Vide Sabhāparva II. 45 for seven groups (*gaṇas*) of *pitṛs*, four of whom are said to be corporeal and three disembodied. Kārṣṇājini quoted by Aparārka p. 138 says that the seven sages from Sanaka to Pāṇcasikha are the sons of Brahmā.

1659. आद्रे विवाहकाले तु पाणिनैकेन दीयते । तर्पणे तु भयेनैव विधिरेव पुरातनः ॥ काष्णार्जिनि quoted by अपरार्क p. 132, स्मृतिच० I. p. 191; यम v. 99 is आद्रे हवनकाले च दद्यादेकेन पाणिना । उभाम्यां तर्पणे दद्यादिति धर्मो व्यवस्थितः ॥; हरदत्त on आश्व गृ. सू. III. 4. 1 says 'देवतास्तर्पयति । तच्चाञ्जलिना कर्तव्यम् । जलाञ्जलिरिति हि तर्पणं प्रसिद्धम् । अन्ये त्वनादेशादक्षिणेन पाणिना कुर्वन्ति । अपरे तु सव्योपग्रहीतेन दक्षिणेन ॥.'

1660. एकैकं चाद्य द्वौ द्वौ वै त्रीञ्जीनैकैकमञ्जलिम् । अर्हन्त्येते क्रमाच्चैव देवार्च-पितरञ्चयः ॥ लघ्वाश्व. I. 95; vide also व्यास in स्मृतिच० I. p. 191.

&c.) do it daily, but generally most brāhmaṇas perform tarpana as part of brahmayajña on one day in the year in the month of Śrāvaṇa.

A special tarpana was offered to Yama on the 14th of the dark half of a month if it was a Tuesday or on the 14th of the dark half. *Vide* Sm. C. I. pp. 197-198, Madanapārijāta p. 296, Par. M. I. part 1, p. 361. Dakṣa (II. 52-55) prescribes that Yama-tarpana is specially performed in the Jumna on the days specified above and gives the several names under which Yama is invoked. *Vide* also Matsyapurāṇa 213. 2-8. The Tai. Ār. VI. 5 speaks of a yajña or *bali* (offering) in honour of Yama every month. There is also tarpana in honour of the great epic hero Bhīṣma offered on the 8th of the bright half of Māgha. *Vide* Sm. C. I. p. 198.

Gobhila-smṛti¹⁶⁶¹ (II. 22-23) emphasizes the importance of tarpana by remarking that, as all beings, animate or inanimate, desire water from the brāhmaṇa who brings prosperity to all, tarpana should always be done by him and that if he does not do it he would incur great sin and that if he does it he would support this world. The idea underlying tarpana seems to be indicated even by the Tai. S. V. 4. 4. 1.¹⁶⁶²

It has already been seen (at pp. 668-669) that tarpana was prescribed as an appendage of the early morning bath and that some required it to be done twice daily while others said that it was to be done only once. As Āśv. gr. places tarpana immediately after svādhyāya (or brahmayajña) it follows that he treated it as a constituent though subordinate part of it. The Gobhilasmṛti (II. 29) says that brahmayajña which consists in inaudibly muttering Vedic texts (japa) should be performed before tarpana or after the morning homa or at the end of Vaiśvadeva and at no other time unless there is some special reason.¹⁶⁶³

The Āhnikaprakāśa (pp. 336-377) gives summaries of tarpana according to Kātyāyana, Śaṅkha, Baudhāyana, Viṣṇu-purāṇa, Yogyājñavalkya, Āśvalāyana, Gobhilagrhya.

1661. तथा भूतानि सर्वाणि स्थावराणि चराणि च । विप्रादुदकमिच्छन्ति सर्वाभ्युदय-
कुद्धि सः ॥ तस्मात्सदेतत्कर्तव्यमकुर्वन्महत्तैवसा । युज्यते ब्राह्मणः कुर्वन्विश्वमेतद्विभति हि ॥
गोभिलस्मृति II. 22-23, quoted in स्मृतिच० I. p. 196.

1662. अश्मन्नर्जमिति परिषिञ्चति मार्जयत्येवैतमथो तर्पयत्येव स एनं वृत्तोऽष्टुष्टय-
शोचन्नमुष्मिँल्लोक उपतिष्ठते । तै. सं. V. 4. 4. 1.

1663. यश्च श्रुतिजपः प्रोक्तो ब्रह्मयज्ञः स चोच्यते । स चार्वाकितर्पणात् कार्यः पश्चाद्वा
प्रातराहुतेः । वैश्वदेवावसाने वा नान्यत्रर्तं निमित्तकात् ॥ गोभिलस्मृति II. 28-29, quoted
in गृह. र. p. 273, आह्निकप्रकाश p. 335.

CHAPTER XVIII

PAÑCA MAHĀYAJÑAS

Pañca Mahāyajñas:—(the five daily great observances or sacrifices).

From early Vedic times five daily observances called *mahāyajñas* were prescribed. The Śat. Br. (XI. 5. 6. I.)¹⁶⁶⁴ says 'there are only five mahāyajñas, they are like great sacrificial sessions, viz. the sacrifice to beings, the sacrifice to men, the sacrifice to the Fathers, the sacrifice to the gods, the sacrifice to *brahman* (Veda)'. These are then briefly defined. In the Tai. Ār. II. 10 we read 'these five mahāyajñas indeed are spread out continuously, viz. devayajña, pitṛyajña, bhūtajajña, manuṣyayajña, brahmayajña. That is fulfilled as devayajña when one makes an offering in fire, even if it be a mere fuel-stick; when one offers svadhā (śrāddha repast) to the fathers, even if it be mere water, that becomes pitṛyajña; when a man offers a *bali* (a ball of food) to the beings it becomes bhūtajajña, when he gives food to brāhmaṇas that becomes manuṣyayajña. When one studies svādhyāya even if it be a single *ṛk* or *yajus* formula or a *sūman*, it becomes brahmayajña'.¹⁶⁶⁵

The Āśv. gr. (III 1. 1-4) speaks of the five mahāyajñas and defines them in practically the same words as the Tai. Ār. II. 10 and enjoins that those yajñas must be performed every-day. Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. III. 1. 2 expressly asserts that the

1664. पञ्चैव महायज्ञाः । तान्येव महासत्राणि भूतयज्ञो मनुष्ययज्ञः पितृयज्ञो देवयज्ञो ब्रह्मयज्ञ इति । इतपथ ब्रा. XI. 5. 6. 1. These words are quoted by विश्वरूप on या. I. 101. The इतपथ proceeds to define these 'अहरहर्भूतेभ्यो बलिं हरेत् । तथैतं भूतयज्ञं समाप्नोत्यहरहर्देव्यादोदपात्रात्तथैतं मनुष्ययज्ञं समाप्नोत्यहरहः स्वधा कुर्यादोदपात्रात्तथैतं पितृयज्ञं समाप्नोत्यहरहः स्वाहाकुर्यादा काष्ठात्तथैतं देवयज्ञं समाप्नोति ॥ अथ ब्रह्मयज्ञः । स्वाध्यायो वै ब्रह्मयज्ञः ।'

1665. पञ्च वा एते महायज्ञाः सतति प्रतायन्ते सतति संतिष्ठन्ते देवयज्ञः पितृयज्ञो भूतयज्ञो मनुष्ययज्ञो ब्रह्मयज्ञ इति । यदग्नौ जुहोत्यपि समिधं तदेवयज्ञः संतिष्ठते । यत् पितृभ्यः स्वधा करोत्यप्यपस्तापितृयज्ञः संतिष्ठते । यश्चूतेभ्यो बलिं हरति तद् भूतयज्ञः संतिष्ठते । यद् ब्राह्मणेभ्यो ब्रह्मं ददाति तन्मनुष्ययज्ञः संतिष्ठते । यत्स्वाध्यायमधीयति कामप्यृचं यजुः साम वा तद् ब्रह्मयज्ञः संतिष्ठते ॥ तै. आ. II. 10.

basis of the five yajñas is the Tai. Ār. ¹⁶⁶⁶ The Āp. Dh. S. (I. 4. 12. 13-15 and I 4. 13. 1) names and explains them similarly and states that they are called (in the Tai. Ār. II. 10) 'great yajñas' and 'great sacrificial sessions' by way of laudation. The word 'yajña' applied to these five daily duties is figurative and the adjective 'great' is applied only for belauding ¹⁶⁶⁷ them. Gaut. V. 8 and VIII. 17, Baud. Dh. S. II. 6. 1-8, Gobhilasmṛti II. 26 and numerous smṛti texts speak of the same five yajñas. Gaut. VIII. 17 includes them among *saṁskāras* as stated above (p. 193).

It will be noticed from the description of the five yajñas given below that they are distinguished from the solemn śrauta sacrifices in two respects. In these five the chief agent is the householder himself, he does not need the help and ministration of a professional priest, while in the śrauta sacrifices the priests occupy the most prominent place and the householder is more or less a passive spectator or agent in the hands of the priests who direct everything. In the second place, in the five yajñas the central point is the discharge of duties to the Creator, to the ancient sages, to the Manes, and to the whole universe with myriads of creatures of various grades of intelligence. In the śrauta sacrifices the main-spring of action is the desire to secure Heaven or some object such as prosperity, a son &c. Therefore the institution of the five sacrifices is morally and spiritually more progressive and more ennobling than that of the śrauta sacrifices.

The sentiments that prompted the performance of these five observances appear to have been as follows: Every man could not afford to celebrate the solemn śrauta rites prescribed in the Brāhmaṇas and Śrauta sūtras. But every one could offer a fuel-stick to fire that was deemed to be the mouth of the

1666. अथातः पञ्च यज्ञाः । देवयज्ञो सूतयज्ञः पितृयज्ञो ब्रह्मयज्ञो मनुष्ययज्ञ इति । आश्व. गृ. III. 1. 1-2; पञ्चयज्ञानां हि तैत्तिरीयारण्यकं मूलं पञ्च वा एते महायज्ञा इत्यादि । नारायण on आश्व. गृ. III. 1. 3. The परा. ना. I. part 1 p. 11 also notes that the five yajñas are prescribed in the Tai. Ār. and draws therefrom the sweeping generalization that all smṛti rules were known to śruti.

1667. अथ ब्राह्मणोक्ता विधयः । तेषां महायज्ञा महासत्राणीति च संस्तुतिः । अहरह-धृतचलिर्मनुष्येभ्यो यथाशक्ति दानम् । देवेभ्यः स्वाहाकार आ काण्डावितुभ्यः स्वाहाकार ओदृपात्राद्विभ्यः स्वाध्याय इति । आप. ध. सू. I. 4. 12. 13—I. 4. 13. 1. Vide Baud. Dh. S. II. 6. 1-8 for very similar words.

great Gods¹⁶⁶⁸ of Heaven and thus show his reverence and devotion to them. Similarly everyone could show his reverence for and gratitude to the great sages that had bequeathed a glorious heritage of sacred literature by repeating at least one verse and one could propitiate his deceased ancestors by offering in loving memory and filial devotion a mere handful or vesselful of water (which costs nothing). The whole world human and non-human is one creation and there must be a spirit of live and let live or give and take. Therefore one must offer what one can afford to a guest and also have something for all beings (including even such shunned animals as dogs, crows and insects). These feelings of devotion, gratitude, reverence, loving memory, kindness and tolerance seem to have been the springs that prompted the Aryans of old to emphasize the importance of the five daily yajñas and to have led sūtra writers like Gautama and legislators like Manu (II. 28) to look upon them as saṁskāras, as ennobling the soul by freeing it from mere selfishness and elevating the body to become a fit vehicle for higher things.¹⁶⁶⁹ Later on it appears that other purposes came to be attributed to the institution of the five daily yajñas. According to Manu III. 68-71, Viṣṇu Dh. S. 59, 19-20, Śaṅkha V. 1-2, Hārīta, Matsyapurāṇa 52. 15-16 and others every householder causes injury or death to sentient beings every day in five places, viz. the hearth, the grinding mill, broomstick, winnowing basket and similar household gear, mortar and pestle, and water-jar. The five daily yajñas were devised by the great sages as atonements for the sins arising from these five sources of injury to life. These five are: brahmayajña which consists in the study and teaching of the Veda, pitryajña which consists of *tarpaṇa*, daivayajña which consists in offerings made into fire, bhūtayajña which is offering oblations to beings and manuṣyayajña which consists in honouring guests. He who performs these daily according to his means is never tainted by the sin of the injuries arising from the five places mentioned above. Manu (III. 73-74) further¹⁶⁷⁰ says that former sages had a different nomenclature for the five

1668. त्वामग्रे आदित्यास आस्यं त्वां जिह्वां शुचयश्चक्रिरे कवे । ऋ. II. 1. 13 ; त्वे अग्रे विश्वे अमृतासो अद्भुह आसा देवा हविरदन्त्याहुतम् । ऋ. II. 1. 14.

1669. स्वाध्यायेन व्रतैर्होमैश्चैविद्येनेज्यया सुतैः । महायज्ञैश्च यज्ञैश्च ब्राह्मीयं क्रियते ततः ॥ मनु II. 28.

1670. आश्व. गृ. I. 1, 2-3 supports मनु 'त्रयः पाकयज्ञाः । हुता अग्नौ ह्यमाना अनग्नी महता ब्राह्मणभोजने ब्रह्मणि हुताः ।'

yajñas i. e. *ahuta*, *huta*, *prahuta*, *brāhmya-huta* and *prāsita*, which were the same respectively as *japa* (or *brahmayajña*), *homa* (*devayajña*), *bhūtayajña*, *manuṣyayajña* and *pitṛtarpaṇa* (*pitryajña*). In the Atharvaveda VI. 71. 2 four out of these seem to be alluded to 'what came to me as *huta* or *ahuta* or given by *pitṛs* and assented to by men'.¹⁶⁷¹ *Huta* and *prahuta* in the sense of *homa* to gods and *bali* to *bhūtas* occur in Br. Up. I. 5.2. But in some grhyasūtras different meanings are attached to these very words e. g. Śān. gr. I. 5 and Pār. gr. I. 4 say that there are four *pākayajñas* viz. *huta*, *ahuta*, *prahuta* and *prāsita* and Śān. gr. I. 10. 7¹⁶⁷² explains that they are respectively the same as *agnihotra* (or *daivayajña*), *bali* (*bhūtayajña*), *pitṛyajña* and *brāhmya-huta* (or *mānuṣyayajña*). The Hārīta-dharma-sūtra has a very interesting passage on this point. 'We shall now explain the *sūnās* (places of injury) which are so called because they kill moving and immovable sentient beings. They are five. The first (*sūnā*) is caused by actions like sudden entrance in water, plunging into water, whirling water, splashing it in various directions, taking water without straining it through a piece of cloth and driving vehicles; the second by walking about in the dark or away from the beaten path or in quick jerks or by treading upon insects &c.; the third by striking (a tree with an axe &c.), by plucking flowers &c., by tying with a rope &c., by crushing (in a mortar), by splitting (wood &c.); the fourth by cutting crops, by rubbing or grinding; and the fifth by ignition (of fire-wood), heating (of water), by roasting, frying and cooking. These five injuries that lead to Hell are committed every day by people. Brahmacārins get rid of the first three by attending on fire and on their teacher and by the study of the Veda; householders and forest hermits purify themselves from these five by performing the five *yajñas*; ascetics get rid of the first two injuries by sacred knowledge and contemplation, but the injury caused by crushing uncooked seeds under the teeth cannot be removed by any of these'.¹⁶⁷³ Although in the Āp. Dh. S. and others the five *yajñas* are enumerated in the order of *bhūta-yajña*, *manuṣya-yajña*,

1671. यन्मा हुतमहुतमाजगाम दत्तं पितृभिरक्षमतं मनुष्यैः। यस्मान्मे मन उदितं
राजित्यग्निहोता सुहुतं कृणोत ॥ अथर्ववेद VI. 71. 2.

1672. हुतोऽग्निहोत्रहोमेण अहुतो बलिकर्मणा। प्रहुतः पितृकर्मणा प्राक्षितो ब्राह्मणे
हुतः ॥ श्रौ. गृ. I. 10. 7. Vide बौ. गृ. I. 1. 1-11 for a somewhat different
terminology.

1673. Vide Appendix under note 1673.

devayajña, pitṛyajña and svādhyāya, still the proper order from the point of view of the times of performance is first brahmajajña (japa &c.), then devayajña, then bhūtajajña, then pitṛyajña, and lastly manuṣyajajña.¹⁶⁷⁴ Therefore they will be dealt with in the same order here. But some matters have first to be noted. Various views were entertained about the time and nature of brahmajajña¹⁶⁷⁵ and pitṛyajña. According to Gobhila-smṛti II. 28-29 quoted above (n. 1663), *japa* prescribed in saṁdhyā adoration may be looked upon as brahmajajña, that the latter may be performed before tarpaṇa and after the morning homa or after vaiśvadeva. Nārāyaṇa on Āśv. gr. III. 2. 1 says that brahmajajña may be performed before or after vaiśvadeva. According to the Snānasūtra of Kātyāyana, brahmajajña precedes tarpaṇa and Āśv. gr. as stated above (p. 695) appears to regard tarpaṇa as part of it. Manu III. 82 (Viṣṇu Dh. S. 67. 23-25) enjoins upon a man the performance of daily śrāddha with food or water or with milk, roots and fruits and thus to propitiate and please the Manes of his deceased ancestors; while Manu (III. 70 and 283) says that tarpaṇa (done after bath) constitutes pitṛyajña. Therefore Gobhila says that śrāddha, tarpaṇa and the *bali* offered to pitṛs constitute pitṛyajña and even when one of them is gone through, the performance of pitṛyajña is effected and it is not necessary to perform all three.¹⁶⁷⁶ In the bali-harāṇa (described below) the remnants of bali are offered to pitṛs (Āśv. gr. I. 2. 11, Manu III. 91).

Brahma-yajña. Probably the earliest description of this is to be found in the Śat. Br. XI. 5. 6. 3-8. That Brāhmaṇa, after stating that brahmajajña is one's own daily study of the Veda, compares several elements required in the ordinary sacrifice to certain elements of brahmajajña, viz. the juhū spoon, upabhr̥t, dhruvā, sruva, avabhr̥tha (the solemn bath at the end of a sacrifice) and heaven are said to be represented by the speech, the mind, the eye, mental power, truth and the conclusion (that

1674. न चायमुपदेशक्रमोऽनुष्ठान उपयुज्यते । अनुष्ठानं तु ब्रह्मयज्ञो देवयज्ञो भूतयज्ञः पितृयज्ञो मनुष्ययज्ञ इति । हरदत्त on आप. घ. सू. I. 4. 13. 1.

1675. कालादर्शे । प्रातर्मध्यन्दिनं वापि ब्रह्मयज्ञो विधीयते । प्रातर्यदि तदा माहुराहुत्याः परतो भवेत् ॥ मध्याह्ने चेत् तर्पणात् प्राग्वैश्वदेवात्परत्र वा । quoted in स्मृतिशु. (आह्निक) p. 368.

1676. आहुं वा पितृयज्ञः स्यात् पित्रोर्बलिरथापि वा । गोबिलस्मृति II. 28 ; आहुं नित्यआहुम् । एतेन त्रयाणां पितृयज्ञत्वाद्भवे एकेनापि कृतेन पितृयज्ञनिष्पत्तेः पितृयज्ञाकरणप्रसक्तः प्रत्यवायः परिहृतो भवति । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 391.

are present in brahmayañña).¹⁶⁷⁷ Then it says that whoever studies day by day his Vedic lessons gains an imperishable world which is thrice or more of the world that one may secure by making a gift to priests of the whole earth replete with wealth. Then 4-7 compare ṛk, yajus, sāman and Atharvāṅgiras (Atharvaveda) texts respectively to offerings to gods of milk, ghee, soma and fat and it is stated that the gods being delighted and satisfied with these, bestow on the man who performs brahmayañña affluence and security, life-breath, seed, his whole self and all auspicious blessings and streams of ghee and honey flow for his departed pitrs. The Śat. Br. XI. 5. 6. 8 enumerates other works that may be recited in brahmayañña, the recital of which is like honey offerings to gods who being delighted and gratified bestow on the reciter the boons stated above, the works being Anuśāsanās (Vedāṅgas), vidyās (such as sarpa and devajana vidyā mentioned in Chāndogya VII. 1. 1), vākovākya (theological discourses called brahmodya, as in Vāj. S. 23. 9-12 and 45-62), Itihāsapurāṇa (traditional history and legends), Gāthās, Nārāsaṁsis (i. e. stanzas in praise of heroes).¹⁶⁷⁸ The Tai. Ār. (II. 10-13) has a more lengthy passage on brahmayañña; Tai. Ār. II. 10 is almost¹⁶⁷⁹ the same as Śat. Br. except in two respects, viz. in the Tai. Ār. Atharvāṅgirasah are said to be honey offerings and brāhmaṇa texts, itihāsas, purāṇas, kalpas (works on śrauta ritual) and Gāthā Nārāsaṁsis are said to be fat offerings and the rewards, bestowed by the gods when delighted by the brahmayañña, are long life, brilliance, lustre, prosperity, glory, spiritual eminence and food. Tai. Ār. II. 11 describes how and where brahmayañña is to be performed 'one who desires to offer brahmayañña should repair to a place so far away to the east, north or north-east of his village that the thatch covering houses is not visible and when the sun rises he should wear his sacred thread (in the upavīta form) under his right arm, should sit down (on a pure spot), should wash both his hands with water, should sip water thrice, should wipe his hand twice with water, should

1677. Juhū, upabhr̥t, dbruvā and sruva are sacrificial ladles and will be described later under śrauta sacrifices.

1678. According to the Tai. Br. II. 7. 5 'मनुष्या वै नराज्ञंसः'; vide शंखयाचनश्रौत 16. 11 where many lists of नराज्ञंस hymns occur, Rg. I. 125 being one hymn of that kind. अथर्व XX. 127. 1 has the word नराज्ञंस and ऋ V. 18. 5. is नराज्ञंसी.

1679. Vide Appendix under note 1679.

once sprinkle his lips with water, and touch his head, eyes, nostrils, ears and heart; he should spread out a large seat of darbhas, should be seated facing the east with his legs crossed over each other (the left foot being underneath and the right foot on the left thigh) and then should repeat his Veda; (it is said that) the darbhas are indeed the flavour (or sweetness) of waters and herbs; he (by sitting on darbhas) makes his Veda full of sweetness. Placing his left hand on the right knee with the palm turned up and covering it with the right hand the palm of which is turned down and placing *pavitrās* (blades of darbha) between both hands, he should begin with the syllable 'om' which is a yajus, which is the representative of the three Vedas, which is all speech, and is the highest syllable; this has been declared by a ṛk (Rg. I. 164. 39 is quoted). He recites the syllables bhūh, bhuvaḥ, svaḥ; he thereby (by repeating the vyāhrtis) employs the three Vedas. This is the truth (quintessence) of speech; he thereby has employed the truth of speech. Then he recites thrice the Gāyatrī verse, which is addressed to Savitr, by its feet separately, then by half of it, then the whole verse without stopping. The sun is the creator of glory, he secures glory itself; then he begins (the next day) the repetition of the Vedic texts from that point which he had noted (the previous day).¹⁶⁸⁰ Tai. Ār. II. 12 states that if a man is unable to go out of the village he may perform brahmayajña by revolving in his mind in the village itself the Veda by day or even by night; or if he cannot seat himself, then he may perform the brahmayajña even standing or lying down, since the principal matter is the recitation of the Veda (time and place being quite subordinate). Tai. Ār. II. 13 says that he should conclude the brahmayajña by repeating thrice the verse 'Adoration to Brahma (Veda or Prajāpati), to Agni, to the Earth, to herbs, to speech, to the Lord of speech (Bṛhaspati), I offer adoration to

1680. The idea is that one is not to begin to recite Vedic texts at random. When a man has recited a portion of any Veda one day, he should note where he stopped and continue his recitation next day from that point. The Āp. Dh. S. I. 3. 11. 19 also prescribes that one should go every day to the water-side before taking his morning meal and recite in a pure place a portion of the Veda in succession (i. e. one day he should begin where he stopped the previous day and so on). Vide Āśv. gr. III. 4. 6 where the Tai. Ār. allowing recitation of the Veda even while standing or lying down is quoted.

the great Viṣṇu'.¹⁶⁸¹ Then he should sip water and return home; thereafter whatever he gives becomes the fee of the sacrifice (i. e. of brahmayaajña).

The procedure of svādhyāya (or brahmayaajña) in Āśv. gr. III. 2. 2-III. 3. 4 is practically in the same words as in the Tai. Ār. quoted above. One or two points may be noted. The Āśv. gr.¹⁶⁸² prescribes that one should recite gazing at the horizon or one may close one's eyes or one may look in such a way that one feels that one can concentrate one's mind. According to the Āśv. gr. the shortest brahmayaajña would be: om bhūr bhuvaḥ svaḥ; the Gāyatrī verse repeated thrice; then at least one ṛk verse and then the verse 'namo brahmaṇe' (quoted above) repeated thrice. The Āhnikaprakāśa p. 329 says that one who knows only a portion of the Veda should recite as brahmayaajña the Puruṣasūkta (Rg. X. 90) and other hymns and one who knows only the Gāyatrī should repeat 'om' as brahmayaajña every day.¹⁶⁸³ Āśv. gr. (III. 3. 1) mentions the following works for svādhyāya, Rgveda, Yajurveda, Sāmeveda, Atharvāṅgirasah, Brāhmaṇas, Kalpas, Gāthās Nārāsaṁsis, Itihāsas, and Purāṇas. But it adds that one may recite only as much as one feels that one can afford to do with a concentrated mind.

The Śaṅ. gr. I. 4 prescribes several hymns and verses of the Rgveda for reciting in brahmayaajña. Others following different Vedas and Śākhās differ as to the content of the brahmayaajña. Vide Āhnikā-prakāśa pp. 328-336 for brahmayaajña according to Kātyāyana and according to the followers of Sāmaveda. Yāj. I. 101 prescribes that as time and ability allow one may include in brahmayaajña the Vedas together with the Atharvaveda, Itihāsa and philosophical texts.

Brahmayajña is very rarely performed every day (except by the most orthodox *vaidikas* and *śāstris*) in modern times and a fixed formula of brahmayaajña has been decided upon, which is recited once a year in Śrāvṇa by most brāhmaṇas in the Deccan. The formula for students of the Rgveda is as follows:

1681. नमो ब्रह्मणे नमोस्त्वग्रये नमः पृथिव्यै नम ओषधीभ्यः । नमो वाचे नमो वाचस्पतये नमो विष्णवे बृहते करोमि ॥ तै. आ. II. 13. This occurs in आश्व. गृ. III. 3. 4 where महते is read for बृहते.

1682. स यावन्मन्येत तावद्धीत्येतया परिदधाति । नमो ब्रह्मणे...करोमीति । आश्व. गृ. III. 3. 4 on which Nārāyaṇa observes 'स यावत्कालमेकाग्रमनसा आत्मानं मन्येत तावत्कालमेवाधीयीत न दृष्टाप्यध्येतस्या इति नियमः । सर्वथा समाहितमनसैवाध्येतव्यं नेयत्तानियम इत्यर्थः ।'

1683. एकद्वेशाध्यायिना पुरुषसूक्तादिपाठेन सावित्रीमात्राध्यायिना प्रणवपाठेन नित्यं ब्रह्मयज्ञः कर्तव्यः । आह्निकप्रकाश p. 329.



After reciting 'om bhūr bhuvaḥ svaḥ' and the sacred Gāyatrī, he recites Rg. I. 1. 1-9, then the first sentence of the Ait. Br., the first sentences of the five sections of the Ait. Ār.; the first sentences of the Black and White Yajurveda, of the Sāmaveda, of the Atharvaveda; the first sentences of the Nighaṇṭu and the six Vedāṅgas viz. Āśv. śrauta, Nirukta, Chandas, Nighaṇṭu, Jyotiṣa, Śikṣā, Pāṇini's grammar in order; the first 'pāda' of Yāj. I. 1 and of the Mahābhārata (I.1.1), the first sūtra of the Nyāya, Pūrvamīmāṃsā and Uttaramīmāṃsā; then a benedictory formula ('tacchaṃyor... catuspade') and lastly the verse 'namo brahmaṇe' is repeated thrice.¹⁶⁸⁴ After this brahmayaજ્ઞā, tarpaṇa of devas, sages and pitṛs follows.

The Dharmasindhu (III. pūrvārdha p. 299) says that brahmayaજ્ઞā is to be performed once either after morning homa or after midday saṃdhyā or after Vaiśvadeva, but those who study the Āśvalāyanasūtra should perform it only after midday saṃdhyā. After ācamana and prāṇāyāma one should make the saṃkalpa (śrīparamēśvaraprītyartham brahmayaજ્ઞāṃ kariṣye tadāṅgatayā devaṛṣyācārya-tarpaṇam kariṣye) and if one's father is dead one should add in the saṃkalpa (pitṛtarpaṇam ca kariṣye). It then sets out how it is to be performed by various people, such as those who have studied all vedas or one veda or only a portion or when one has no time. It says that the followers of the Taittirīya śākhā repeat the words 'vidyud-asi vidya me pāpmānam-ṛtāt satyam-upaimi' at the commencement and the words 'vṛṣṭirasi vṛṣca me pāpmānam-ṛtāt satyam-upāgām' at the end. If a man is unable to repeat brahmayaજ્ઞā sitting he may do it even when lying down.

The Dharmasindhu notes that according to the followers of the Taittirīya śākhā and of the Vājasaneyā Samhitā tarpaṇa is not a part of brahmayaજ્ઞā and so tarpaṇa may be performed by them either before brahmayaજ્ઞā or even some time after brahmayaજ્ઞā.

1684. After Rg. I. 1. 1-9 the following are repeated अग्निर्वै देवाना-
मवमो विष्णुः परमः । अथ महाव्रतम् । एष पन्था एतत्कर्म । अथातः संहिताया उपनिषद् । विद्
मघवन्विद्वा । महाव्रतस्य पंचविंशतिं सामिधेन्यः । इये त्वोर्जे त्वा । अग्न आयाहि वीतये । शं नो
देवीरभिष्टये । अथैतस्य समाप्तायस्य । समाप्तायः समाप्तातः । मयस्सतजभनलग्नसंमितम् ।
गौः ग्मा । पञ्चसंवत्सरमयम् । अथ शिक्षां प्रवक्ष्यामि । वृद्धिरादैच् । योगीश्वरं यज्ञवल्क्यम् ।
नारायणं नमस्कृत्य । अथातो धर्मं व्याख्यास्यामः । अथातो धर्मजिज्ञासा । अथातो ब्रह्म-
जिज्ञासा । तच्छ्रियोरावृणीमहे । गातुं यज्ञाय गातुं यज्ञपतये । देवी स्वस्तिरस्तु नः । स्वस्तिर्मा-
ह्वेष्ये । ऊर्ध्वं जिगातु भेषजम् । शं नो अस्तु द्विपदे शं चतुष्पदे । नमो ब्रह्मणे- (त्रिः) .
Vide Appendix under note 1684.